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# **The Development of Western Civilization**

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# **The Development of Western Civilization**

**PART I**

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**The Copp Clark Publishing Company**  
**VANCOUVER TORONTO MONTREAL**

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The Generations of the Kings and Queens of England since William the Conqueror to Elizabeth I.

William I 1027
William II 1056
Henry I 1068
Stephen 1097
Henry II 1133
Richard I 1157
John 1167
Henry III 1207
Edward I 1239
Edward II 1284
Edward III 1312
Edward the Black Prince 1330
Richard II 1367
Henry IV 1367
Henry V 1387
Henry VI 1421
Edward IV 1442
Richard III 1452
Edward V 1470
Henry VII 1457
Henry VIII 1491
Edward VI 1537
Jane Grey 1537
Mary I 1516
Elizabeth I 1533

Dates given are years of birth

Time Chart of the reigns of the Kings and Queens of England 1066–1603

1066	William I	NORMAN
1087	William II	
1100	Henry I	
1135	Stephen	
1154	Henry II	ANGEVIN
1189	Richard I	
1199	John	
1216	Henry III	PLANTAGENET
1272	Edward I	
1307	Edward II	
1327	Edward III	
1377	Richard II	YORK
1399	Henry IV	LANCASTER
1413	Henry V	
1422	Henry VI	
1461	Edward IV	YORK
1483	Edward V      Richard III	
1485	Henry VII	TUDOR
1509	Henry VIII	
1547	Edward VI	
1553	Jane Grey      Mary I	
1558	Elizabeth I	
1603		

Dates given are years when reigns began

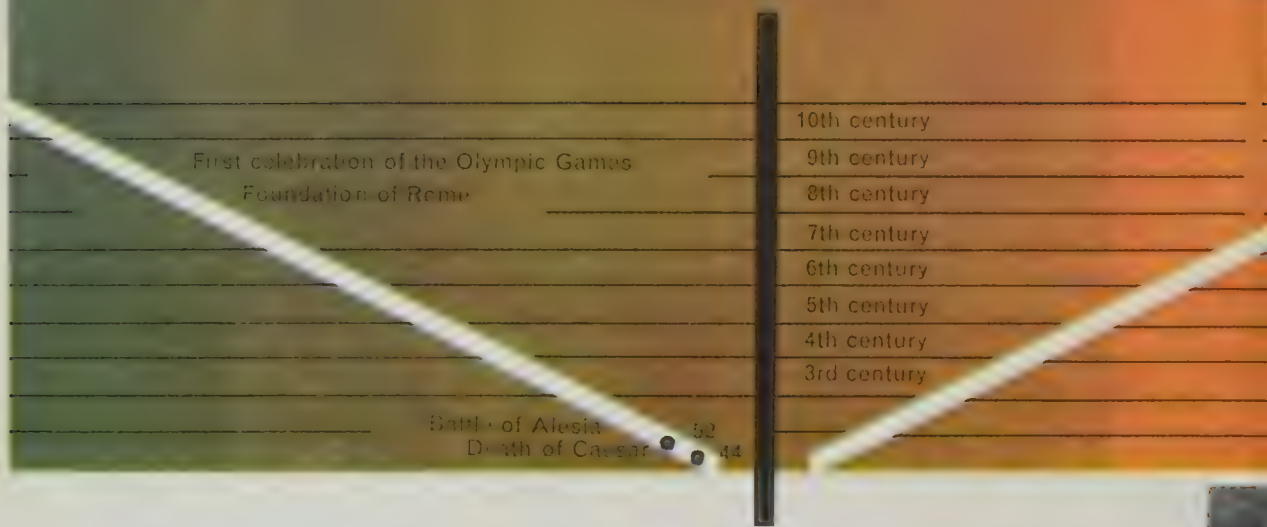
# Section 1: THE BEGINNING

## CHAPTER 1: THE IDEA OF TIME

History is the study of the past. First of all, an attempt must be made to understand how we measure the past, that is how time is measured. In studying the history of man on earth, we are only concerned with earth time. This is a good name for our time because the units of time which are used in history are based upon the movements of the earth. The earth is both spinning round and also travelling round the sun. These movements take the amount of time which are called a day and a year. The time that each of these movements take was worked out by the Egyptians some 5,000 years ago.

The most important unit of time for the historian is the year. Each year has to be given a number. To say an event happened so many years ago is of little use. For example, it could be said that the first Russian sputnik was launched ten years ago, if the year in which the statement was made was 1968. But one year later in 1969 the statement would have to be changed to eleven years, and to twelve years in 1970 and so on. To overcome this difficulty a point in time is chosen and the years are counted from that particular time. Christians have chosen to number their years from the year in which Jesus Christ was born (Year 1). Each year is described by counting how many years Before Christ (B.C.) an event occurred or how many years after the year of our Lord's birth. The language of the early Church was Latin and the Latin for 'year of our Lord' is Anno Domini and so an event after the Birth of Christ is known as so many years A.D. Other peoples of the world have chosen different starting points. The Mohammedans count from the year 622 A.D., the year in which Mohammed fled to Medina; the Romans counted from the date of the foundation of the City of Rome in 753 B.C.; the Greeks from the date of the first Olympic Games in 776 B.C.

The year is a very small unit and it is often easier to use a larger unit. It is easier to understand a person who tells us that we have another mile to go than the person who says we have another 63,360 inches to go, although the distances are exactly the same. To

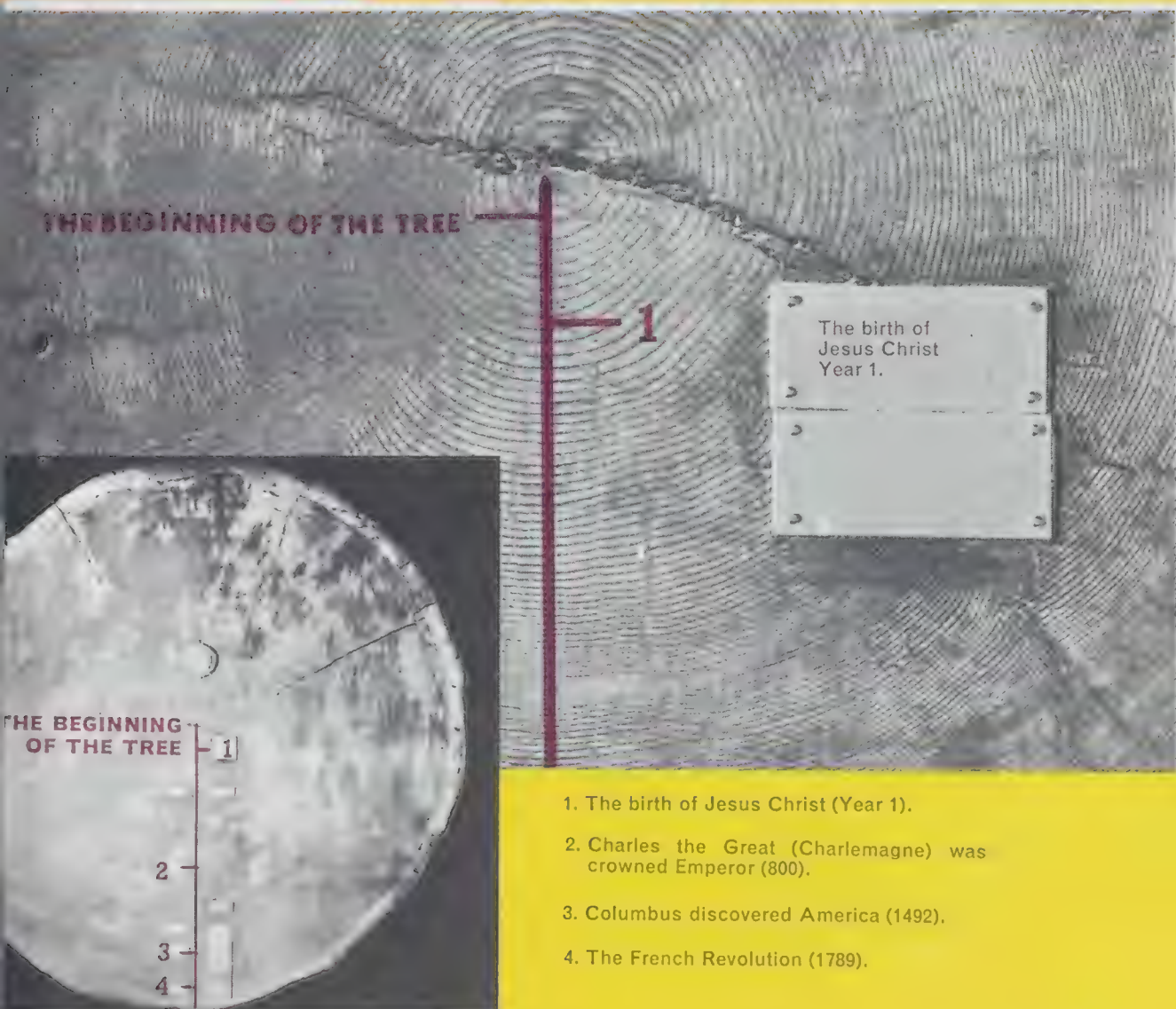
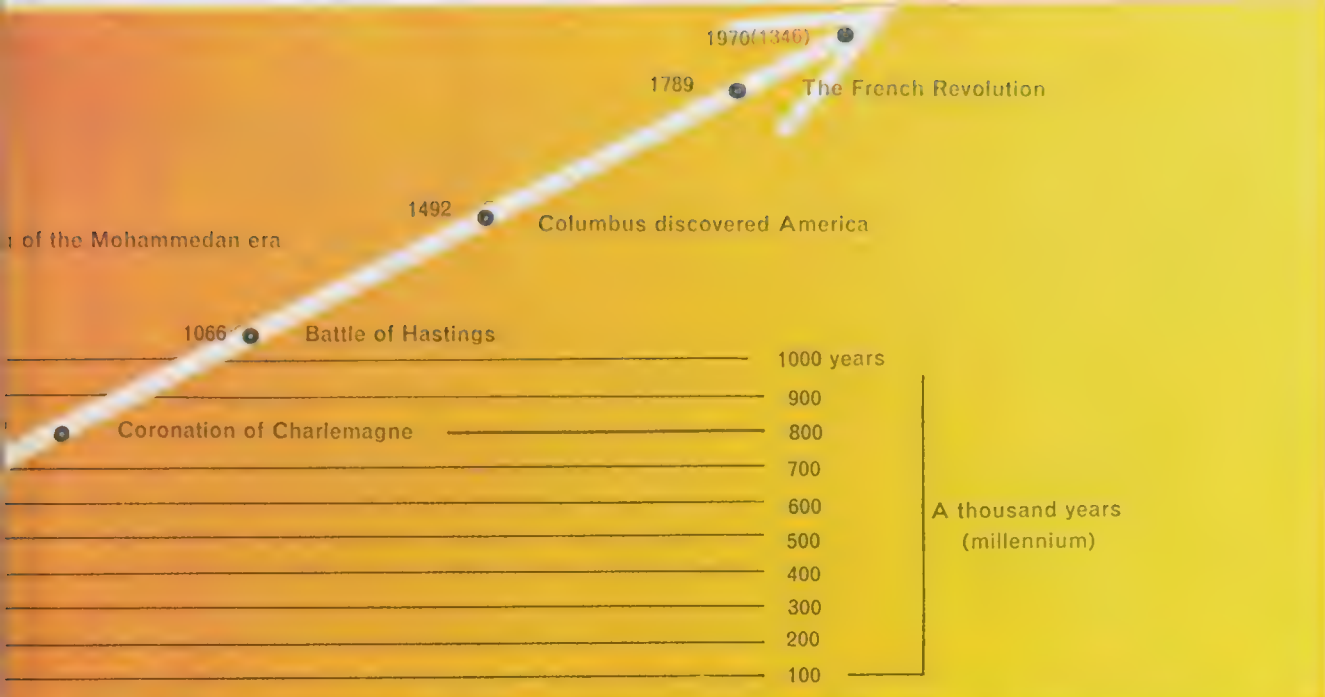


obtain a larger unit the historian groups years together. Ten years are called a decade, a hundred years a century and a thousand years a millennium.

These units are exact, but sometimes the historian who is studying people does not want to be exact because people do not fit into exact patterns. For example, take the term 'child'. This means a young person, but it cannot be said to mean all young people between two definite ages because some children grow up more quickly than others. Nevertheless 'child' is still a useful word to use. The historian has some terms which are useful although they do not refer to a particular number of years. Two such words are 'Age' and 'Period'. Both of these words refer to a number of years during which events were influenced strongly by a particular person or country, material or invention. Examples are the Napoleonic Period (the period during which events in many countries were influenced by Napoleon Bonaparte), the Roman Period, the Stone Age and the Steam Age.

Another of these general terms is 'generation'. Times change and one group of people grow up under very different conditions from their parents who grew up some years before. The historian finds such differences important and describes them by calling them different generations. You are one generation and your parents are another, called the previous generation, your grandparents the





A section through a giant Californian redwood tree which started growing before the birth of Christ. Each 'ring' is the amount the tree grew in one year

generation before and so on. As in the case of ages there is no definite number of years for a generation, but it is usually reckoned to be between twenty and thirty years.

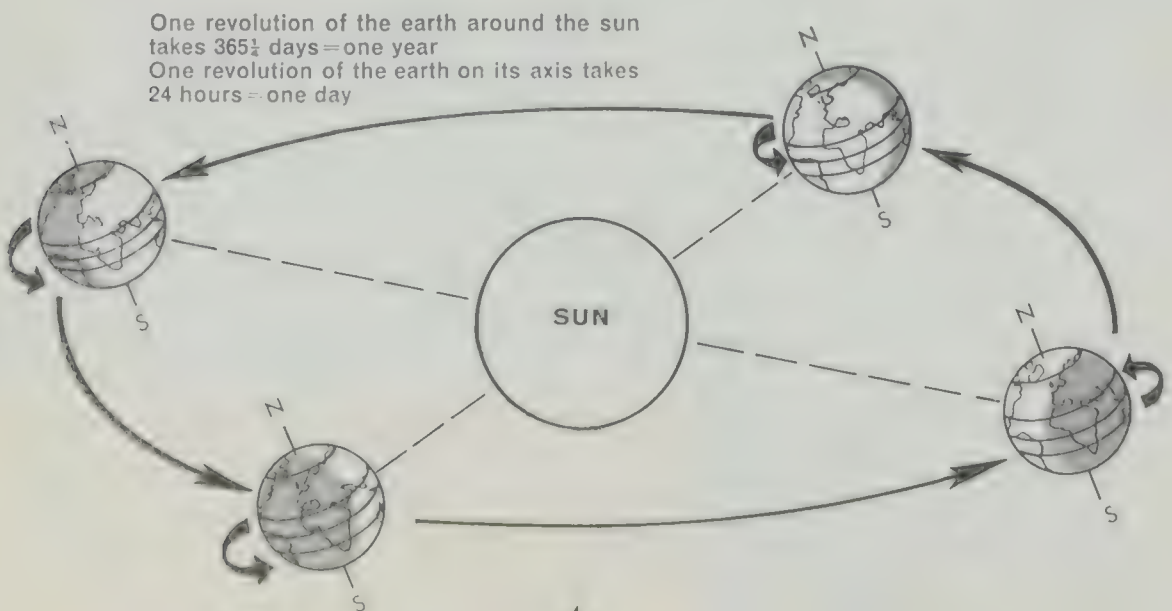
The most difficult problem with time is to attempt to understand what a decade really seemed like to the people who lived through it. How long did it seem to them? Most of us can remember very little of the first decade of our lives. As people grow older the time appears to pass more quickly. This is a problem which no historian ever completely overcomes, but nevertheless he must try.

The historian does not usually use a diagram of generations, but a similar diagram based upon the same idea. He uses a scale. That is he represents a number of years by an inch and then puts in the events in their correct position by measuring along the line. The distance between each event on the line then represents how long in time the events were apart. This sort of diagram is called a 'Time Chart' and the scale which is used is called a 'Time Scale'.

### SUMMARY

The main unit of time used by the historian is the year counting from B.C (Before Christ) and A.D. (Anno Domini)—Years are grouped into Decades (10), Centuries (100) and Millennia (1,000). —Ages and Periods have no definite number of years, a generation is between 20 and 30 years. A Time Scale is used to represent time as a distance on a Time Chart.

The earth rotating on its own axis and around the sun



## CHAPTER 2: EVOLUTION

World History tells the story of man. The story starts with the question 'Where did man come from?'. There was no scientific answer to this question until just over one hundred years ago when a scientist named Charles Darwin wrote a book in which he put forward an idea called 'The Theory of Evolution'.

His idea was that living things had all developed or evolved from more simple forms of life and that life could be traced back to simple one celled animals in the sea. This could have happened because living things slowly change themselves so that they fit in with their surroundings. It is a well-known fact that the young of every living thing are often like their parents. You have been told that you are like your father or mother or grandparents. Both plants and animals live longest in surroundings which suit them and so it is likely that their children will too. Let us take a simple example. The long neck of the giraffe enables it to reach its food high up in trees and also to see its enemies when they are a long way off and therefore has time to escape. Giraffes with short necks soon starve if there is a shortage of food and are more easily caught by lions. The long-necked giraffes therefore tend to live longer, they have more giraffe calves and these, like their parents, have long necks. In this way the long-necked giraffe has evolved.

Many plants and animals which have evolved have been unable to adapt themselves to new conditions, such as a change in climate, quickly enough. If this happens those types or species of animal or plant all die out. Then, as with the giant reptiles, the species is said to have become extinct.

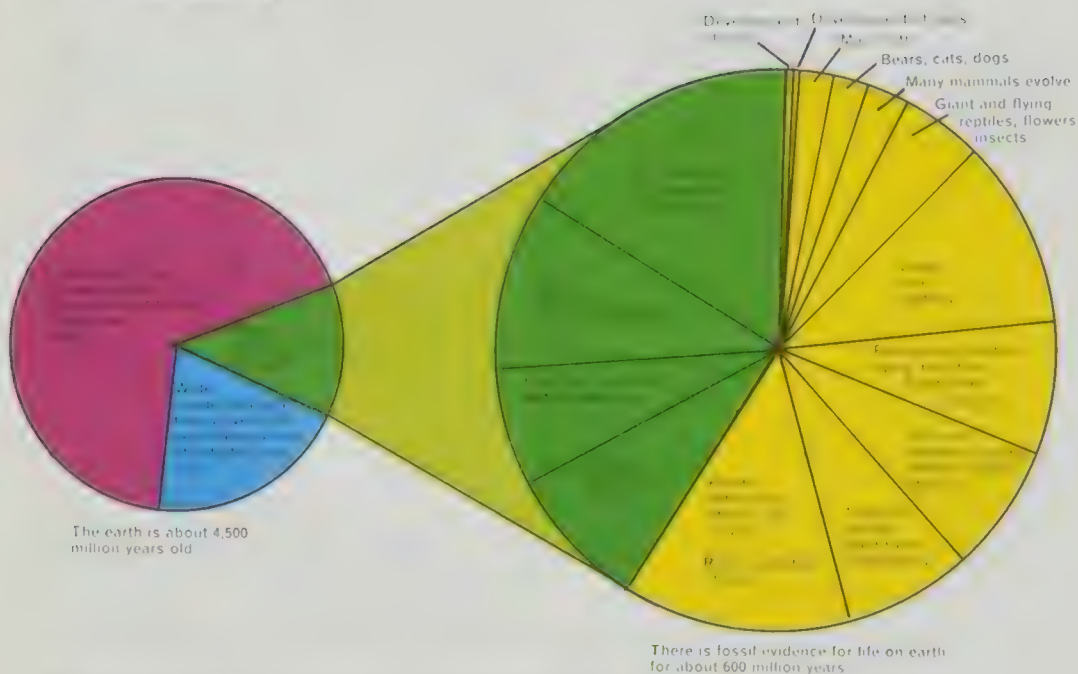
As far as is known at the moment the earth was formed about 4,500 million years ago. Life first appeared on earth in the seas more than 600 million years ago and ever since living creatures have been evolving. When they died some were buried in what eventually became rock and have been preserved as fossils. It is from these fossils that the people who study rocks, who are known as geologists, have built up the story of the development of life.

The story cannot be told in detail here. The illustration shows the main development. The small circle represents the length of time that the earth has been in existence and what fraction of that time





Charles Darwin



The development of life on earth (*read anti-clockwise*)

there has been life on the earth. The larger circle represents the time that there has been life on earth and shows when the various living creatures evolved. Some apes have a thumb which can be moved separately from the fingers and could therefore be used to grip firmly. They developed the ability to use things they picked up to help them to collect food.

During the last 20 million years man has evolved. Not only could he grip firmly, he also developed the ability to think.

### SUMMARY

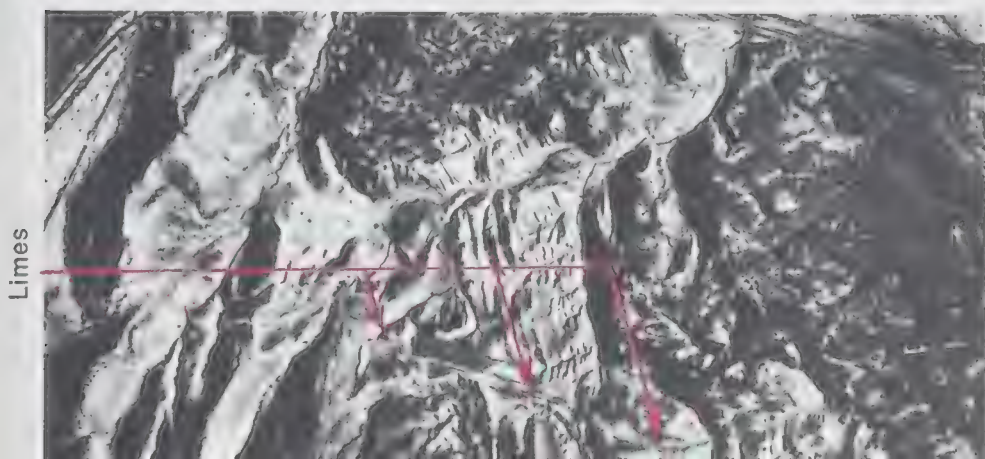
Charles Darwin produced the theory of evolution which states that each species has evolved from an earlier, simpler form of life. Evolution can be traced from fossils in rocks. Man first appeared some 20 million years ago.

## CHAPTER 3: HOW DO WE KNOW? ARCHAEOLOGY

There is much that we do not know about early civilizations. Most of the knowledge that we do have has come from a study of the past called archaeology. People who have studied this subject, archaeologists, have to be extremely careful in their work. They try to find the place where early man lived, worked or was buried. These places are known as sites.

Sites are found in many ways. Any work which involves disturbing the ground, building houses and roads, quarrying, even gardening, may produce objects called 'finds' which show that a site may be near. Finds may even be found in molehills or on ploughed land, but if you go looking be sure to ask for permission to do so from the owner. These finds are most likely to be pieces of pottery called sherds, a coin, scattered building stone, or even bones. No find should ever go unrecorded. If you ever make a find, or even hear of one being made, you should find out as much as you can about the find. This means when, where, and by whom the find was made, on whose land the find was made and whether similar or other objects have been found before. Then take the information with the measurements and a description of the object, or, better still, a drawing or photograph of it, to your local archaeological society, museum or school so that a record can be made. Meanwhile keep the find safely so that it can be shown to experts if it is important.

The other main way in which sites are found is by taking photographs from the air. Buried walls and ditches cause grass and crops to grow at different speeds and times. This causes crop marks and these can often be seen from air photographs taken at the right time and from the correct height and angle. The illustration shows such a photograph of a Roman villa site at Ditchley in Oxfordshire. Fortifications also show up well from the air as the photograph of Roman limes shows.



Roman frontier  
defences



Air photograph of the Roman villa site, Ditchley, Oxon, England

There are many kinds of sites but the most common for early peoples are burial places which are often mounds of earth called barrows or tumuli (singular tumulus).

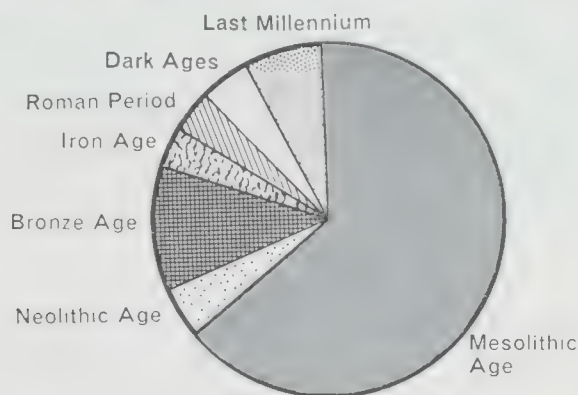
In these mounds were buried with the bodies objects which the people believed would be used by the dead person in the next world. These were precious and everyday things and from them an idea of how the person lived can be built up.

Air photograph of West Kennett Long Barrow, Wilts, England





Archaeologists name the early peoples after the objects which are found on their sites. The oldest instruments used by man were made of flint which were very roughly shaped into axe heads which could be used in the hand. These were made by striking one flint against another and so knocking off thin flakes. It may well have been from the sparks produced by this, causing dry grass to catch fire, that man first learnt to make fire. The people who used the axes are called the 'Old Stone Age' or Palaeolithic people. Later, in the 'New Stone Age' or Neolithic Period, man was able to make polished-stone hand axes. Eventually he learnt to use metals, first bronze, then iron, until today when he uses all the metals on earth. The Bronze and Iron Age peoples who developed these skills moved about the earth, often driving people with less skill and poorer weapons before them. These ages occur at different times in different countries. The following diagram shows approximately when they occurred in England.



The archaeologist divides these periods further by studying the style or type of the object. In the same way that it is obvious that a motor-car which was built in 1900 is earlier in date than a modern car, so experts can tell earlier designs of weapons and pottery, decoration and art. In this way earlier and later objects and settlements can be worked out. This method of dating is called typology.

Not all objects can be placed in the correct order in this way but those found together are usually of similar date. A person who knew nothing about the design of gloves would not be able to tell the difference between a pair made in 1900 and a pair made in 1968. If, however, he knew that one pair was found on the seat of the 1900 car and one in the modern car, he would pick out the earlier pair easily. Archaeologists build up their knowledge from objects which have been found together in the same way.



Hand axe of the Old Stone Age



(centre) Polished hand axe of the New Stone Age



(above) Bronze Age hand axe

Objects are also found where people have lived in the same place for a length of time. Broken tools and pots, beads, brooches and weapons slowly build up to form a layer called an occupation layer. These layers are important to an archaeologist because he knows that all the objects must have been used at about the same time. In hot countries where sun-baked mud bricks were used to build houses which did not last very long, fresh houses were built on top of the remains of the old one because there was a shortage of space inside the defences of the town. Over a period of time large mounds were built up. These mounds are called 'tells'.

Another problem has to be overcome. To use our comparison of the gloves once more, a modern pair of gloves could be left in an old car. There would be no doubt, however, about the date of the gloves if the car had been in a garage which had been unopened since 1900. In the same way objects found together on a site can be said to be of a similar date only if they have been undisturbed. This is certain if there is another layer on top which has not been disturbed, for example a hard clay floor which has been trodden down. This tells the archaeologist that the layer beneath, called a sealed layer, contains material which is earlier in date than the floor.

The study of these layers is therefore very important to the 'Tells', mounds of clay built up from the old cities



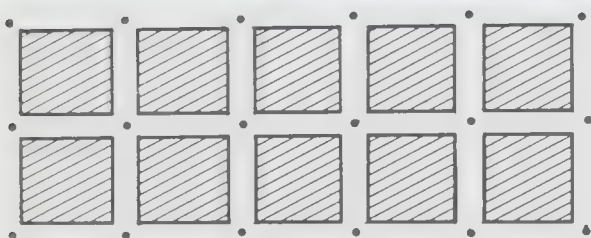




Baulks

Spoil heap

Archaeological excavation in Greece



PLAN OF  
AN EXCAVATION

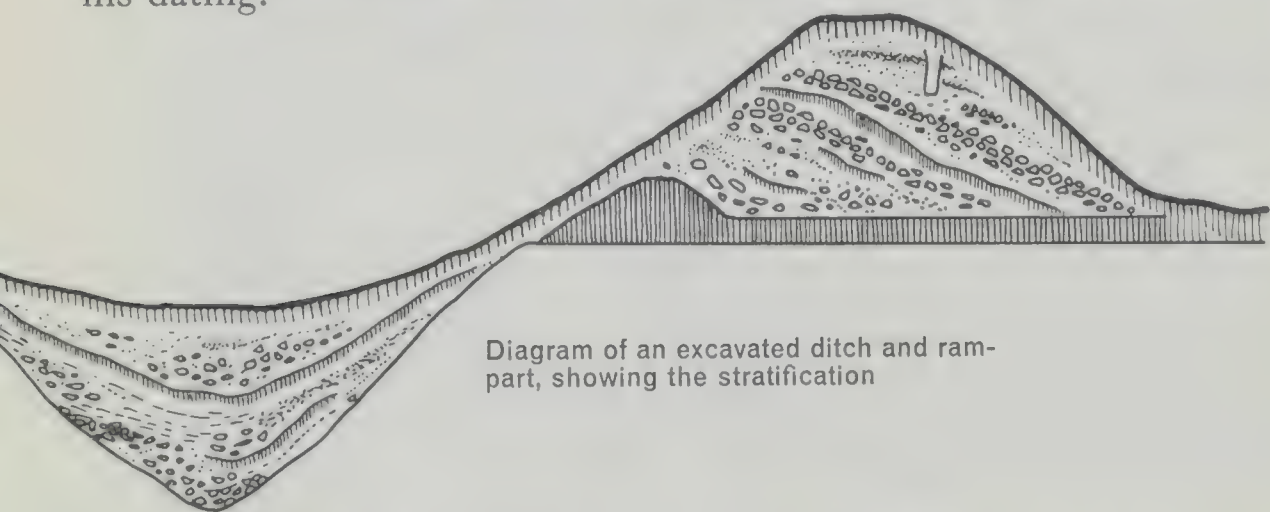
archaeologist. Since the layers can be very difficult to see when digging on a site, even very carefully with a trowel and brush, he must plan where he is going to dig most carefully. Normally the 'dig' is carefully measured out in squares with 10 foot sides. On these squares only  $8\frac{1}{2}$  feet is dug out so that each square is separated from the next by a 'balk' 3 feet wide. The baulks are used for carrying away the unwanted soil from the holes, called spoil. The illustration shows this method of excavation being used in Greece. Notice the spoil heap on the right of the picture. It is important when you visit an archaeological excavation not to stand on the spoil

Bronze Age swords



heap, even for a better view, because this knocks the heap down and spreads it out for someone to shovel up again. The soil gets trampled all over the site which has to be cleaned again, and the spoil is packed down making the final filling of the holes more difficult.

This baulk is very important because in it the archaeologist can see all the layers or stratas through which he has dug and is able to draw them in cross-section. This careful studying of the stratas is called stratification and it is on this that the archaeologist bases his dating.



From finds and excavated sites the picture of an area can be built up. This is done by drawing a distribution map. These are maps on which the site of each find is marked so that the spread or distribution over the area can be seen. When using archaeological distribution maps it must be remembered that they can only show what has been found. If there are more archaeologists working in one area than in another the distribution map will probably show more finds than in another area where fewer people are working. This should be remembered when comparing the finds in one area with those made in another.

All the methods described above, the materials used, the type or style of the object and the connection between one object and another in the same layer or stratification make it possible to discover which objects were used by early peoples and which by people who lived later. They do not enable us to fix a date on an object. It is possible to say that the Old Stone Age axe is of an earlier type than the New Stone Age axe, but in what year were they made?



Distribution map of Saxon finds in Buckinghamshire, England

In many cases we cannot answer this question precisely, but in other cases it is possible. Coins in sealed layers give the earliest possible date of that layer; a layer of burning may be connected with the date of a fire which is known from written accounts. Other objects found may be shown in pictures or carvings of known date or may even have words carved on them called *inscriptions* (See page 19.) Modern science has also come to help the archaeologist. Chemists, atomic physicists and geologists who study the earth's magnetic field have all developed methods which have made more accurate dating possible.

### SUMMARY

Archaeological sites can be discovered from finds on the ground or by photographs from the air. —The most common sites for early peoples are barrows. —Early peoples are grouped according to the materials and skills they developed, Palaeolithic, Neolithic, Bronze and Iron. —Typology and stratification of finds puts them in the right order. —Distribution maps show the number of known sites.





The entrance to a cave used as a home by a prehistoric man  
(below) Cave painting of a wild horse. The cave paintings may have been done as part of a ritual to help hunting



The hand of a prehistoric man painted on the wall of a cave



## CHAPTER 4: THE STONE AGE

For most of the time that man has been on earth he has used stone tools. If a circle diagram was drawn to show this only,  $\frac{1}{10}^{\text{th}}$  of the circle which represented man's time on earth would represent the time he has used any other tools. If we imagine the circle to be a clock face the Stone Age would cover more than 59 minutes 59 seconds of the hour. The Stone Age is then by far the longest of all historical periods, but it is one about which very little is known, and all the knowledge which is known has come from archaeology.

Palaeolithic Man lived during and between the Ice Ages. These were periods when the climate changed so much that most of northern Europe and other parts of the world near mountains were covered with ice. Traces of Palaeolithic Man have been found in many parts of the world. Although care must be taken in drawing conclusions from distribution maps (see page 12), these finds show how man spread slowly throughout the world. There were no men on the American continent until about 15,000 years ago when men crossed from Asia into North America. The archaeological finds from various parts of the world are very similar. This has led experts to believe that man did not evolve and develop his tools in a number of different parts of the world, but that as new methods of making tools were slowly developed, they were carried across the world by different peoples as they travelled. It is so difficult to date these early finds that a number of places have been suggested as the area in which man first developed his tool making, but most of the evidence at the moment suggests that this took place somewhere in western Europe, the northern half of Africa or southern Asia.

The tools were carried all over the world by Palaeolithic Man because he had to live by hunting and hunters are wanderers. Although he might live in a cave (see page 14) for some generations because it provided a safe home, he had to live near the animals he hunted. The animals had to live near their food and where this was depended on the climate. As the Ice Ages came and went the climate changed, the vegetation changed, the animals moved to new feeding grounds and man the hunter was forced to follow them.

Sometime during the Palaeolithic Period man learnt how to make and use fire. After the last Ice Age, some 20,000 years ago, forest began to grow over what had previously been plains. Man was forced to change his ways. Instead of hunting horses, bison, reindeer and mammoth, he now hunted red deer, pig, elk and brown bear. These were more difficult creatures to hunt, and so man was forced to hunt smaller creatures and fish. Above all he had to use his intelligence and he thought out how to use wood and fibres from the forest to make bows and arrows, and deer antlers to make fish spears. He also began to collect roots, nuts and fruits from the forests. This period is called the Mesolithic or Middle Stone Age.

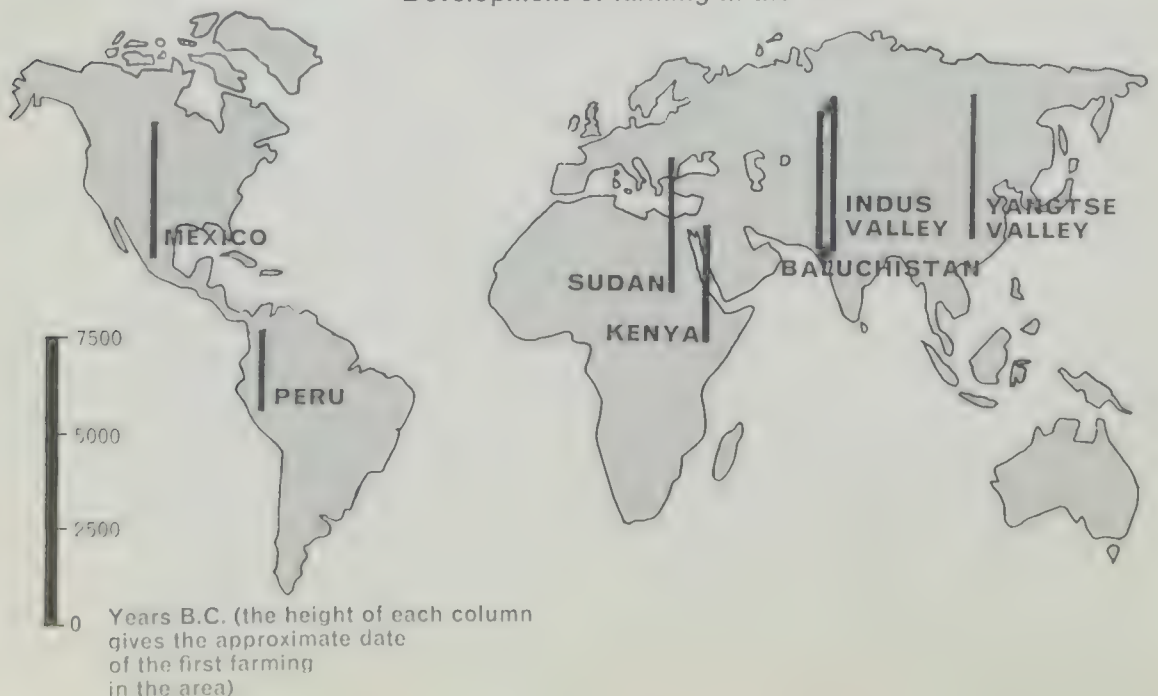
During the Mesolithic Period man tamed dogs. This may have been first done by helping an injured dog or by the animals being attracted by the bones which man had thrown away from his camp fire. Soon the dog was being used to control and hunt other animals. So man gathered his first flocks and herds, but still he had to take his animals to whatever place food was available for them. He was a wandering or nomadic herdsman.

The New Stone Age or Neolithic Man learnt to make much better tools which enabled him to do his work more quickly and so he had more time, which he used to develop new skills.

### SUMMARY

The Stone Age is the longest of all historical periods. —Man slowly developed from hunter to trapper to nomadic herdsman, learning how to make fire and tame animals.

Development of farming in the world





## CHAPTER 5: FARMING, CIVILIZATION, WRITING and STONE MONUMENTS

For millions of years man used his stone weapons as a hunter. Then he learned to herd animals but he was still forced to wander from place to place. He learnt to gather wild plants for food and from this learnt how to grow some food himself. This meant he had to settle in one place, at least for some years until he had exhausted one piece of ground and was forced to move on to another.

The earliest archaeological evidence of settled farming is in the Middle East, at Jericho in modern Jordan and Jarmo in Iraq. From this area farming spread slowly over Europe, taking some 4,000 years to reach northern Europe.

Farming also developed in other parts of the world, but it is uncertain whether these were separate discoveries or whether the farming methods were brought by wandering people.

The knowledge of farming grew very slowly, as the excavations at Jarmo show. Around this area wild wheat and barley grew and dogs, sheep, pigs, cattle and horses ran wild. Man slowly learnt how to reap the crops and grind the grain. Here people lived in houses with mud walls and domesticated or tamed goats, dogs and possibly sheep. Bones found on the site show that hunting was still carried on. Slowly the people became craftsmen and made quite good quality stoneware and even pottery.

The natural climate and surroundings of Jarmo made this slow change from hunting to farming possible. But Jarmo was not the only place in the area where these conditions existed. Stretching from the river Nile to Jericho and then northwards and east to Jarmo, and down the valleys of the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, there were similar conditions which favoured farming. This area has become known as the Fertile Crescent from its shape.

The climate and soil of the Fertile Crescent enabled good crops to be grown. These crops not only made the supply of food greater and more certain than it had been in the old hunting days but also affected the lives of the people in other ways. Men no longer had to spend the whole of their time in gathering food. One man could now provide more than he and his family needed to eat. This left

him with some food over which he could exchange with a good tool-maker for a better tool than he could make himself. Men who were good at making things, or craftsmen, found that they were better off if they concentrated on their craft or skill and exchanged the goods which they made with the farmers for their spare food. This exchange of goods is called barter. Craftsmen could now spend all their time improving their goods which they developed and new crafts were introduced. Men lived in larger groups which became cities with rules made by their rulers or kings, which any group of people living together need, and where soldiers could protect them. These larger groups of people based on cities with skilled craftsmen are called civilizations. The earliest civilizations are to be found in the fertile river valleys of the world where the climate and the rich soil made the growing of surplus crops fairly easy, the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates (Mesopotamia), Egypt, China and India.

Stone tablet of Narmer



The falcon is the sign for a king. The falcon leads the head of a man by a cord. Behind the head are six lotus leaves, each the sign for 1,000 men. The leaves grow from the ground to which the head is attached. Below is a single barbed harpoon and a small rectangle which stands for a lake. The picture sentence is therefore 'The king led 6,000 men captive from the land of the harpoon lake'





Cuneiform tablets of Mesopotamia. The distribution map shows other sites where these have been found, indicating areas where Mesopotamians invaded

When kings or rulers made rules for their people, it soon became necessary to keep a record of these rules and so a system of writing developed. At first pictures were used. Man soon learnt that it was easier to use the same picture each time. The Egyptian system of pictures was the first to be developed and these pictures are called hieroglyphics. It was not until 1822 that modern scholars were able to read hieroglyphics. This was done by studying the Rosetta stone. This stone, named after the place in Egypt where it was found by Napoleon's troops, was part of an inscription written in 196 B.C. both in Greek and in hieroglyphics. Using this stone a French linguist was able, after 14 years' work, to discover what the hieroglyphics meant.

Each civilization produced its own form of writing. The Assyrians evolved a system of symbols which were much easier and quicker to draw than the Egyptian hieroglyphics. The Chinese developed a system of characters which are a cross between pictures and symbols and these are still used in China today. The Greeks developed an alphabet about 1600 B.C. The Romans used this as the basis of their alphabet and developed from it the one still used in western Europe.



HIEROGLYPHICS

EGYPTIAN  
DEMOTIC  
SCRIPT

GREEK

How symbols have lasted 5,000 years



Egyptian hieroglyphic picture  
of a sandal strap.  
Meaning: causes to live—life  
THIRD MILLENNIUM B.C.

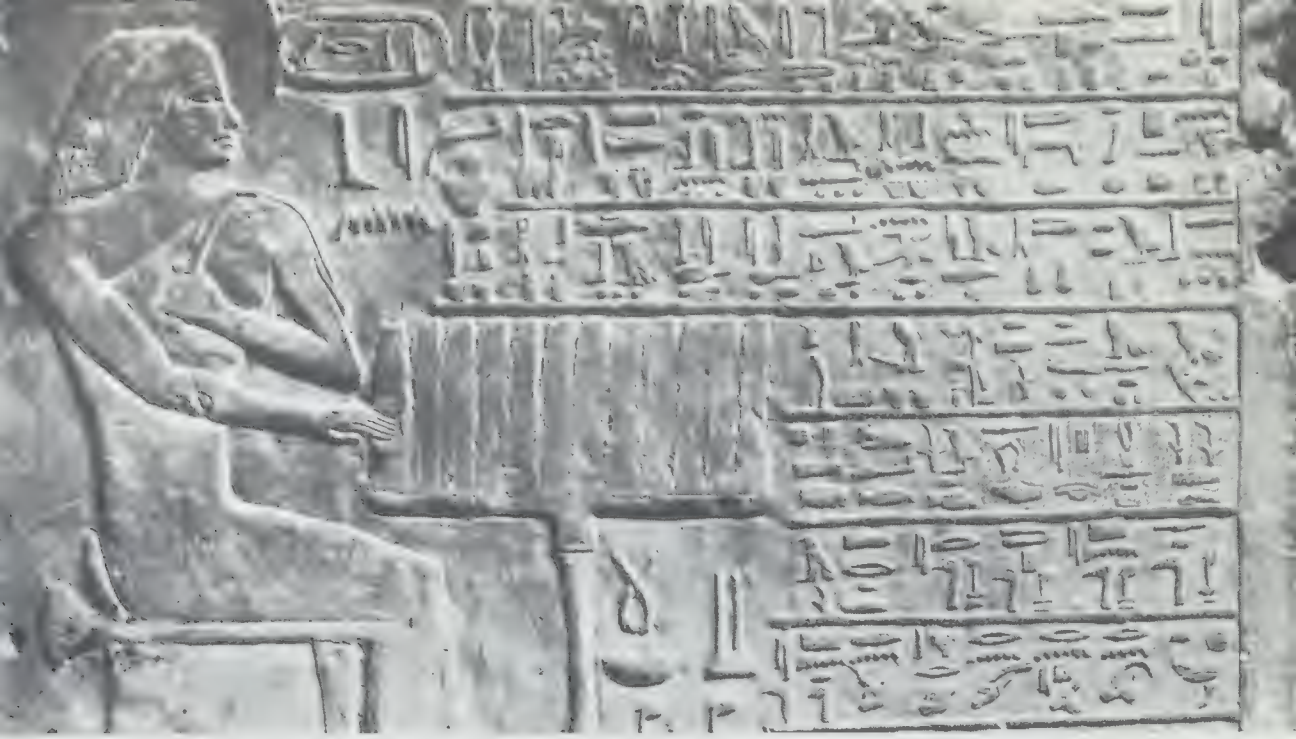


Cretan hieroglyphic  
The sign of life  
SECOND MILLENNIUM B.C.



Modern symbol  
used by biologists  
to represent 'female'  
SECOND MILLENNIUM A.D.



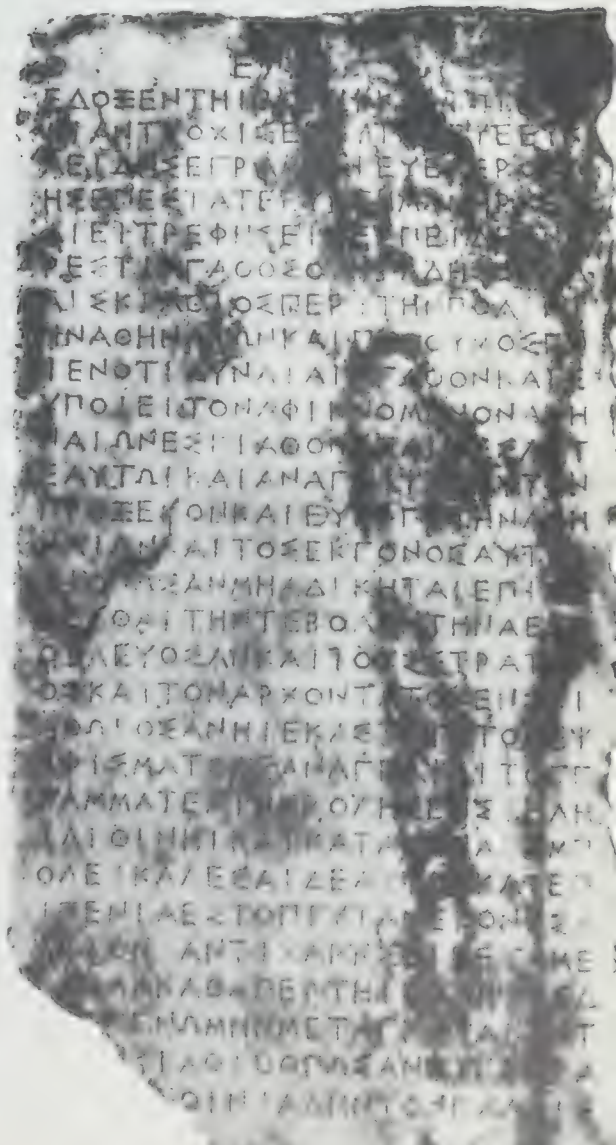


Egyptian hieroglyphics

The modern Western European alphabet has developed from the alphabet of the Phoenicians. The chart shows how this development has taken place.

I	II	III	IV	V
PHOENICIAN	EARLY GREEK read from right to left	LATER GREEK read from left to right	LATIN	ENGLISH
𐤀	A	A	A	A
𐤁	S B	B	B	B
𐤂	1	Γ	CG	C.G
𐤃	Δ	Δ	D	D
𐤄	Ε	Ε	E	E
𐤅	Υ	Υ	FV	F.V.U
𐤆	Ζ	Ζ	...	Z
𐤇	Η	Η	H	E.H
𐤈	Θ	Θ	...	TH.PH
𐤉	Ι	Ι	I	I
𐤊	Κ	Κ	...	K.KH
𐤋	Λ	Λ	L	L
𐤌	Μ	Μ	M	M
𐤍	Ν	Ν	N	N
𐤎	Ξ	Ξ	X	X
𐤏	Ο	Ο	O	O
𐤐	Π	Π	P	P
𐤑	...	...	...	S
𐤒	Φ	Φ	Q	Q
𐤓	Ρ	Ρ	R	R
𐤔	Σ	Σ	S	S
𐤕	T	T	T	T

(below) A Greek inscription



One further achievement of early man must be mentioned. This is his ability in building monuments. These are called 'henge' monuments, taking their name from Stonehenge, the most famous of this type of monument which is in Wiltshire, England.

Henge monuments are usually circular, varying in diameter from 10 up to 500 yards. The first were built in late Neolithic times and were still being used in the early Bronze Age. In England this means between 2000 and 1500 B.C.

A brief description of Stonehenge will show what a tremendous achievement these monuments were. The largest stone is 30 feet long of which 8 feet is buried in the ground, and weighs nearly 50 tons. The lintel stones (those which form the top of the arches) were cut into shape so that they formed a circle, and each stone was mortised and tenoned together. All the cutting and shaping of these stones had to be done with stone tools!

Perhaps the most incredible part of the whole story is that geologists have shown that the stone that was used for the monument was brought from Pembrokeshire in Wales, over 150 miles away!

The stones were put up by hand. Some were slid down slopes into their holes and then pulled upright by ropes and the holes rapidly filled in. Others were balanced on the edge of their holes and then tipped in. The stones were left to settle and then came the long job of levelling off the tops for the lintels. When the uprights were ready, a timber framework was built and the lintels dragged up into place.

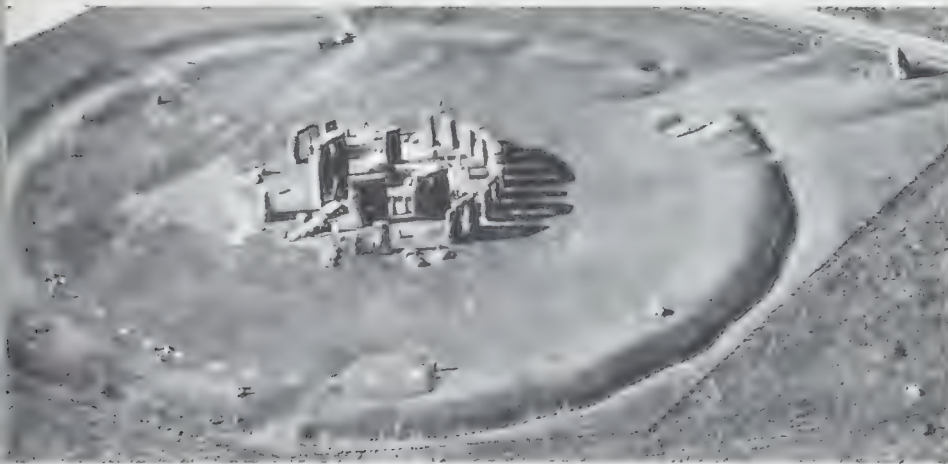
Many theories have been put forward to suggest the purpose of Stonehenge. The layout of the monument is based on the direction of the sun. The sun rises over the heelstone on Midsummer Day. It is therefore assumed that the monument was a temple based on the worship of the sun.

One final point is worthy of mention. Excavations in 1953 found that some of the stones had the shape of early Bronze Age axes carved on them and also a Bronze Age dagger. Although these carvings are now very faint the shapes are very similar to those used in Greece and Crete at about the same time. This then is further evidence of how the knowledge of tools travelled, even in the early Bronze Age.



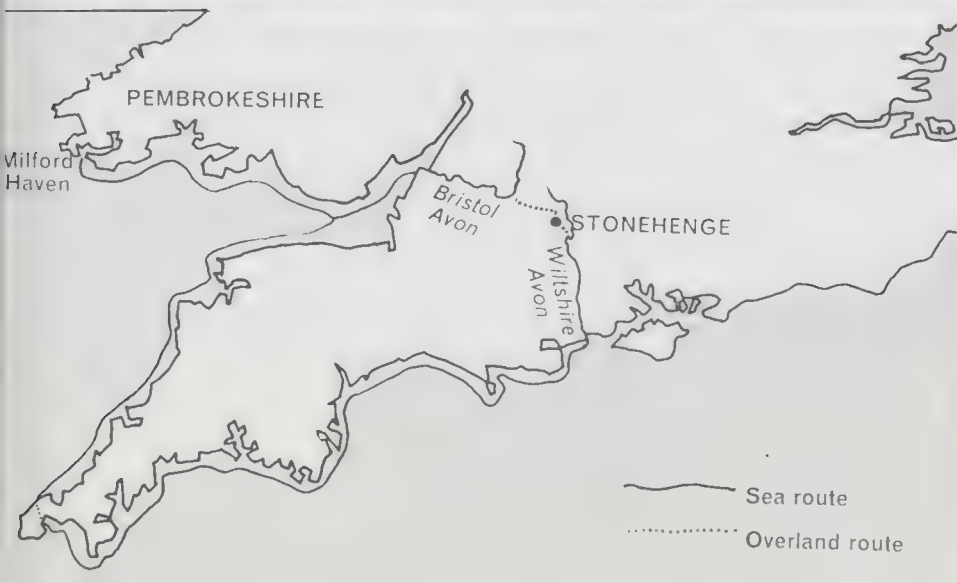
## SUMMARY

Settled farming first developed in the Fertile Crescent, e.g. in Jarmo.—Craftsmen developed their skills and pottery was made. Food surpluses led to barter and civilization developed in the towns of the river valleys.—The need for recording rules led to the development of laws and writing; hieroglyphics in Egypt (the Rosetta stone), Cuneiform, Greek, Chinese and Hebrew.—Stonehenge the greatest Neolithic monument.



Stonehenge

A photograph from the air of Stonehenge



Map of Stonehenge, showing where the stones came from and the possible routes by which they may have been brought

Sea route

Overland route

## Section 2: THE RIVER CIVILIZATIONS

### CHAPTER 1: MESOPOTAMIA

#### DEVELOPMENTS IN THE FERTILE CRESCENT

The great change which took place in the history of man when he ceased to be a nomadic herdsman and became a farmer took place in the Fertile Crescent, which included Jarmo and Jericho. It was in this area that the first civilization grew up, on the land between the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, which the Greeks later named Mesopotamia (the land between the two rivers), a land of swamps, marshes and hot sun flanked by mountains and desert.

For some 4,000 years from Neolithic times onwards the only information about the people of Mesopotamia is based on the pottery that they have left behind. This long period is divided by the type of the finds, into lesser periods or cultures, each named after the site where it was first recognized.

The first of these periods is the Hassuna-Samarra culture. The pottery at Hassuna is of the type found at Jarmo but also includes the first decorated pottery, while at Samarra there was much more elaborately decorated pottery, probably made by highly skilled travelling craftsmen. The second period is the Halaf culture where cobbled streets are found for the first time, and houses are built of mud such as was used for building at Jarmo; small mud bricks, baked in the sun, also make their first appearance. The Halaf culture seems to have been destroyed by invaders from the south-east and a new period known as Al-Ubaid begins. Although this pottery was cruder and less attractive, spouts and loop handles were introduced. In making it a slowly turning wheel was used. By this time (c. 4000 B.C.) the population was growing rapidly and new settlements sprang up around temples along the rivers which not only provided water for the fields but also were used as trade routes. The need to build canals to water the farmlands made the people join together and in this way cities were formed.

#### THE GROWTH OF CITIES

Agriculture was developed until the fields yielded as much grain



Early cultures and trade routes in Mesopotamia and the Near East

as the Canadian wheatfields of today. Grain was stored in granaries and rough methods of accounting came into use. The better controlled food supply made it possible for more people to live on the land. When there were too many, some had to move elsewhere. The new villages usually grew up around a 'mother-village' which was the home of the local god. This central shrine became bigger, more elaborate and richly decorated. Temple-granaries stored large amounts of barley, on which the people of the whole state could live in times of crop failure.

City-states first developed in Sumer, the ancient name for southern Mesopotamia. Each city was surrounded by smaller towns and villages and the whole state might cover 2,000 square miles and have some 35,000 people. The city itself was defended by a wall. The walls of Uruk were nearly 6 miles long and had over 900 towers. According to legend they were built by the great king Gilgamesh.

In these towns a growing number of people were specialists, earning their living not directly from the land, but as builders, potters, metal workers and other craftsmen, and also as administrators and priests. Administrators and priests were actually the same people – rulers of all kinds were priests. Religion was a part of everyday activity and life. The ruler or *ensi* governed the state on behalf of the god and one of his most important duties was to build temples. Gudea, ensi of Lagash, built no less than 15 temples in the city.





GREECE

BLACK SEA

EGEAN SEA

KIZIL

ASIA MINOR

CRETE

CYPRUS

MEDITERRANEAN SEA

PHOENICIA

TYRE

JORDAN

DEAD SEA

PALESTINE

SINAI

MEMPHIS

EGYPT

THEBES

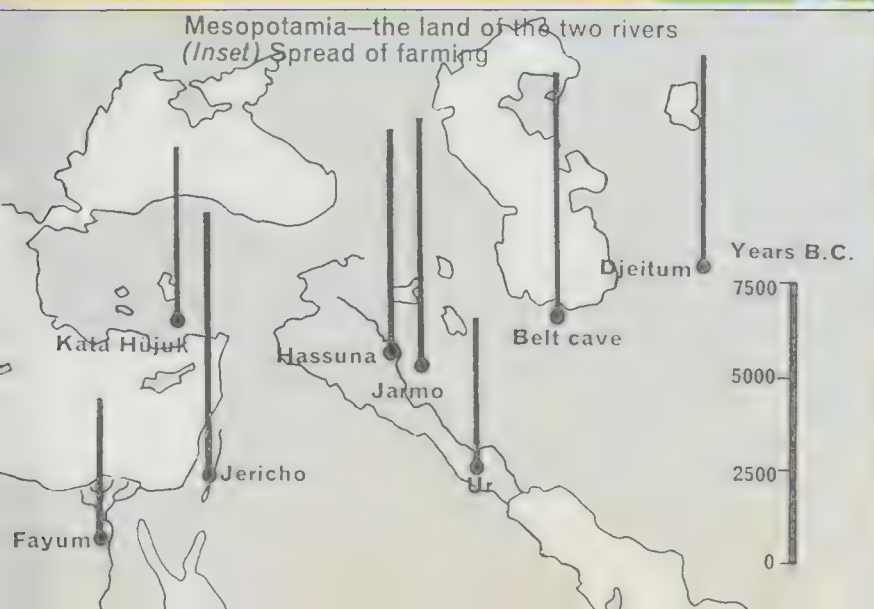
RED SEA



The fertile  
Crescent









The ziggurat of Babylon (this may have been the Tower of Babel, see Genesis 10:14)

The Sumerians lifted their main temples towards heaven on huge mounds or stage towers called ziggurats. These were built of mud bricks with an 8-foot thick layer of baked bricks held together with bitumen which is found in what are now the oilfields. The base of the ziggurat of Ur was 200 by 150 feet and may originally have reached a height of 120 feet. The Sumerian arithmetic, which was used to plan these monuments, was sometimes based on units of 10 and sometimes on units of 60. Our divisions of hours and circles come from the unit of 60.

The south of Mesopotamia began to develop more quickly than the north, possibly because the rivers and canals which were now being built in the south partly protected it from the raids of the peoples who lived in the mountains.

This period is the Uruk culture which lasted from 3300 to 3100 B.C. The pottery wheel was developed and seals made in the shape of a cylinder were used to roll designs and, at the end of the period, writing was introduced. This started in the form of pictures but soon became cuneiform (from the Latin 'cuneus', a wedge) because the stylus used made wedge shapes when pressed on the clay tablets for the inscriptions (see page 19). The earliest inscriptions known are in a language called Sumerian after Sumer, but at the moment it is not possible completely to decipher them.

The last period of prehistoric Mesopotamia is the Jemdat Nasr culture (3100-2800 B.C.) when sculpture was developed. Writing improved and it is possible for us to read the inscriptions and to unravel the story of these people.





Gilgamesh c. 2700 B.C.  
King of Uruk, the hero of one of  
the earliest epics

Gudea, ensi of Lagash c. 2120  
carved in polished black stone,  
showing him with a temple plan  
across his knees



A Semite or Akkadian





## THE AKKADIANS

The first ruler of whom an inscription has been found is of the king of Kish who reigned about 2700 B.C. and this title became that of the kings of Sumer. Other cities later ruled all Sumer, first Ur c. 2650 B.C. and then, after Ur had been defeated, the city of Lagash. Lagash was overcome by Prince Sargon of Akkad, a region to the north of Sumer. The Akkadians spoke a slightly different language. During his reign (2371-2316 B.C.) Sargon built a new capital at Agade on the Euphrates and built up a large empire ruling the whole of Mesopotamia and even launched expeditions across the Persian Gulf. Sargon's successors were unable to hold this empire together and it collapsed and broke up about 2230 B.C. into smaller states. Each city tried to defend itself from the attacks of the highlanders who dominated Mesopotamia until they were defeated by the king of Uruk about 2120 B.C. After seven years he was overthrown by the ensi of Ur and this city again dominated the whole of the old Akkadian Empire until 2006 B.C.

## THE RELIGION OF SUMER AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF CIVILIZATION

Sumerian civilization had a great influence on all the later civilizations which were to flourish in the Land of the Two Rivers. The civilization was based upon the fertile soil of the rivers watered by annual floods. These floods depended on the amount of rain and snow which fell on the mountains in the north; changes in these falls could mean disastrous droughts or floods in Sumer. The Sumerians could never be certain what the next year would bring. They felt that their lives were very much in the hands of the gods.

Each town had a temple at its centre and its own god, but the three great gods of Sumer were Anu, the father of the gods and the Lord of Heaven, Enlil, Lord of the Earth and Enki or Ea, the Lord of the Waters. In the legends of Mesopotamia are stories of a battle between good and evil before the creation of the earth, and of an ark being used to save life on earth from a flood.

The low lying land of Mesopotamia with irrigation canal. After 1,000 years of irrigation, southern Sumer became increasingly salty and more powerful cities emerged farther north.





Head from Sumerian  
statues  
(right) Akkadian  
Empire (c. 2300 B.C.)



Food surpluses, specialist craftsmen, improved communications and trade enabled men to become wealthy and prosperous in these patches of civilization which were quite small. Men in all the other areas were still living in the Stone Age. Since then this new kind of living – civilization – has both developed and expanded, until it now covers practically the whole world.

The period when towns were beginning to appear in these civilized areas, roughly from 4000-3000 B.C. is sometimes called the 'Urban Revolution'. Copper was in use, but it was not hard enough for many purposes and was relatively scarce. Beautifully worked tools of flint and polished stone continued in general use until the secret of making bronze, out of an alloy of copper and tin, was discovered around 3000 B.C. There was a large demand for these metals, and this was one reason for the increase of trade, which went along with improved methods of transport. Animals came into use for working purposes – oxen, horses and donkeys, pulling sledges and later wheeled carts. Boats appeared on rivers and canals, some of them with sails, and before long sailing ships were plying at sea between the coasts of Syria and Egypt. It has been said that the thousand years or so before 3000 B.C. produced more inventions and discoveries than any period until after the end of the Middle Ages (sixteenth century A.D.).

These inventions, together with trade, helped to bring distant peoples (those of Egypt, Mesopotamia and the Indus Valley) into touch with one another, and broke down the barriers between neighbouring states. In Mesopotamia and the Fertile Crescent as a whole the pattern was that of a number of temple-states having close links with each other, while remaining more or less independent. The states of Mesopotamia traded with each other, and exported some of their goods to Egypt through the ports on the

Syrian coast, such as Byblos and Ugarit. The empires, such as that of the first great empire-builder Sargon I (mentioned above), lasted often for only short periods.

In Mesopotamia, riches eventually led to defeat. Its wealth attracted tribes which swept down from the hills to raid and pillage, and in 2006 B.C. Ur itself was taken for the second time. This important event marked the end of the Sumerians as a ruling nation.

### *SUMMARY*

The first civilizations grew up in Mesopotamia.—The first 4,000 years after the introduction of farming is divided into cultures—Hassuna and Samarra; Halaf; Al-Ubaid; Uruk and Jemdat Nasr.—City-states developed based on temples and religion. —c. 2700 B.C. the king of Kish governed all Sumer and was succeeded by the kings of Ur and Lagash.—The empire of Akkad was set up by Sargon (2316 B.C.) and lasted until 2230 B.C. when the country was overrun by men from the hills.—Sumerian rule was re-established 2120 B.C.—In 2006 B.C. Ur was taken by the highlanders.—Agriculture, trading and communications were developed and much rebuilding done.

Carving of Naram Sin, 2291–55 B.C. grandson of Prince Sargon of Akkad (p. 30). Naram Sin, armed with a bow and wearing the horned crown of the gods, is climbing a steep mountain over the bodies of his enemies, followed by his troops





## CHAPTER 2: EGYPT

### THE NILE

Egypt is an outstanding example of a fertile river valley in which early civilization developed. This civilization stretched from the south of the river Nile some 500 miles upstream to the First Cataract or rapid.

Unlike Mesopotamia, Egypt was fortunate in having good natural frontiers. The 'red soil' of the desert stretched away on both sides of the river in Upper Egypt which lay between the beginning of the Delta (see below) to the First Cataract. Here the 'black soil' of the river valley reached to the cliffs, from the top of which the hot desert stretched away over great distances. To the north in Lower Egypt the country was protected by the Mediterranean Sea.

The fertile black soil on which the farming and the whole civilization depended was left behind each year in the valley after the flooding of the Nile. This flood was caused by rain in the mountains in which the river had its source some 4,000 miles to the south. The flood waters covered the valley and left a deposit of black mud or silt which built up the very fertile soil which is now 40 feet deep in places. So much mud was brought down by the river that the silt continually blocked the mouth of the river which formed new channels to reach the sea. This area of silt and river channels was called a delta by the Greeks because it had the same shape as their letter delta Δ). All the water needed by the growing crops came from the river and as the fields dried out after the flood under the hot sun, water was taken to them by small canals. The water was swung up from the river to these canals by buckets on long poles. The river was so important to the Egyptians that they named their

Pyramids on the banks of the Nile in Lower Egypt



The Nile in southern or Upper Egypt



**Mountains of the desert**

**Strip of fertile land**

**The Nile**

**Strip of fertile land**

**Desert**

**THE  
NILE  
VALLEY**



seasons after it, the 'Inundation' (June to September), 'The fields appear from the water' (October to February) and 'Drought' (March to June). It was from this that our modern calendar was eventually derived.

There was, however, a distinction between the Delta in the north and Upper Egypt in the south in matters of trade, since the cities of the north could more easily grow wealthy by trade across the Mediterranean with Syria and later Crete.

#### **THE MONUMENTS**

The history of the Egyptian civilization has been discovered from the hieroglyphics (see page 19) and tomb pictures and inscriptions that remain. It took many centuries after civilization began before Egypt became a unified country. There were struggles for leadership between the northern cities. First one, then another became the



most powerful city. Eventually Menes or Narmer, the ruler of the more backward south, conquered the Delta about 3200 B.C. He united Upper and Lower Egypt and took the title of pharaoh or 'God-King'. He founded the first of Ancient Egypt's thirty dynasties of rulers. The city of Memphis was built by Menes and from it he and his successors of the First and Second Dynasties ruled Egypt which grew into something like what we would now call a 'nation-state': a closely knit society which formed a unit in matters of culture (having the same language, writing, art-forms, building-styles, etc.) and of economics.

With the Third Dynasty there began, in 2700 B.C. a period known as the Old Kingdom. It lasted some 500 years, during which Egypt was peaceful and became steadily richer.

About 2700 B.C. the Egyptians learnt to use stone blocks instead of sun-dried bricks. With these they built great monuments for their



temples and burial places, the remains of which can still be seen. With this interest in stone they also carved monuments in the sandstone cliffs which bordered the Nile Valley. The biggest single carved monument is the Sphinx near the village of Gizeh. This has the body of a lion 240 feet long and 66 feet high and a head with a human face 13 feet wide, probably that of the reigning pharaoh when the Sphinx was carved about 2500 B.C.

The largest tomb is the Great Pyramid of Cheops or Khufu (about 2600 B.C.). Some 2,000,000 blocks of limestone and granite weighing up to 15 tons each were quarried with copper and stone tools and dragged on wooden sledges and rollers to the Nile. They were then carried by boat to the nearest point and dragged overland to the site. This was carefully prepared and trenches full of water were used to make sure that the area was level. These foundations were so accurately laid that there is only a difference of half an inch across the 13-acre site, showing how the Egyptians had developed surveying and arithmetic. The four sides of the monument face north, south, east and west almost exactly and this shows how accurate was their knowledge of the heavens.

When they reached the site, the blocks of stone were hauled up ramps which wound round the sides of the pyramid until it was completed at 481 feet high. It is still the biggest tomb in the world. Inside the tomb was a complicated pattern of galleries and air passages and all except one small entrance were cunningly sealed from the inside.

The Great Pyramid of Cheops (*left*) built by his cousin Hemon about a century after the Step Pyramid at Saqqara

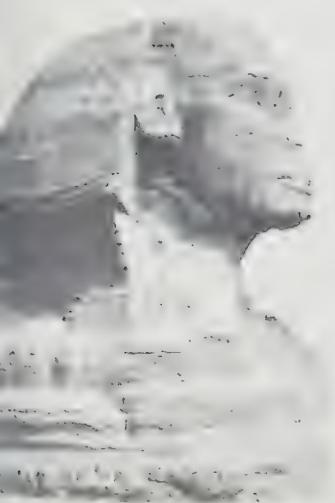


Later pharaohs preferred to be buried in caves in what became known as the Valley of the Kings. These rich tombs were later found and raided by robbers, but some have been found more or less intact by archaeologists. The most famous of these was that of the Pharaoh Tutankhamen (c. 1300 B.C.) which was discovered by Lord Carnarvon and Howard Carter in 1922. It contained over 2,000 objects of great artistic value which the dry climate had helped to preserve.

The way in which the Egyptians lived can still be seen from the paintings they left on their monuments. Wheat was harvested with sickles and carried in rope baskets to a floor where an animal trod on the ears to separate the grain from the husk. This was further separated by a process called winnowing, that is throwing both grains and husks into the air so that the wind would blow the light chaff away while the heavy grain would fall back to the ground. Later a hand-drawn plough and hoes were used to prepare the ground for the next crop which was sown by throwing the seed on the land by hand.

The peasants worked on the land which was owned by the pharaohs and part of all the produce went into his great storehouses. It was necessary therefore to keep a record of all that was grown. Professional civil servants were used for this and all other tasks that involved writing. These were called scribes who wrote on a paper made from the pith of the papyrus reed which grew wild on the banks of the Nile. This was cut into thin strips, dried and then sewn into long rolls.

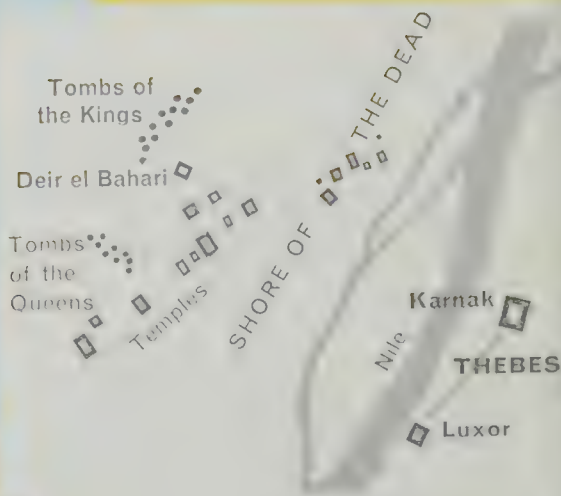
3,000-year-old head of Rameses II (1292-1225 B.C.) discovered and unwrapped in A.D. 1881 with the dried skin, hair and teeth intact



The Sphinx



# MEDITERRANEAN SEA



## ANCIENT EGYPT



Zoser (Djoser) at Saqqara, 2700 B.C. The art of Pyramid building is now thought to have been introduced into Egypt from Sumer together with Picture language



## THE BELIEFS AND IDEAS OF THE EGYPTIANS

Before the whole of Egypt was brought under one ruler each city had its own god. For example Horus was the god of Edfou and Osiris of Busiris. Horus became the god of Lower Egypt and Set the god of Upper Egypt. Horus, whose symbol was a hawk, was the god with whom the pharaohs associated themselves. He was believed to be the son of Isis and her brother and husband Osiris, who was the god of the earth and growth.

The worship of the sun started in Heliopolis where the sun god was called Re. The name of the city means 'city of the sun' and under the Seventh Dynasty Re became a god for the whole of Egypt, the people often describing themselves as 'the cattle of Re'. It was the study of the heavens which arose from this worship that led to

The Temple of Deir-el-Bahari, 1500 B.C. on the left bank of the Nile, where all the tombs and funeral temples were built



the Egyptian calendar being based upon a year of 365 days, twelve 30-day months and five odd days, as early as the third millennium B.C. The Egyptians were also the first people to divide the day and the night each into twelve parts. The length of the hours therefore changed with the seasons. These hours were measured by a form of water clock. This was a stone bowl from which water slowly drained. On the sides of the bowl the hours at different seasons of the year were marked. The bowl was filled at sunrise and the hour could be read off at any time of the day by comparing the level of the water with the marks on the side of the bowl. This type of clock was the most accurate known until the mechanical clock was invented in medieval times and hours were all made of the same length.

The Egyptians believed that the spirit of a dead man (his ka) lived on in the body after death. An attempt was therefore made to make the body last for ever. The entrails of the body which are difficult to preserve were removed and then the remainder of the body dried and preserved with salts and spices. This process would take over 70 days in the case of a pharaoh who would then be buried with his most important and precious worldly possessions. The preserved bodies are known as mummies and the pharaohs often spent their whole lifetime in building their own magnificent tombs.

After Egypt was first united the pharaoh was regarded as a god and all the people in the land obeyed him. What was pleasing to the gods was thought of as right, whether it was what we should call a 'good' action or the carrying out of some ritual. Pharaoh was regarded as the sun-god himself. Pharaoh, they said, was 'a god by

Priest making a sacrifice



Plan of a Temple

The boat chamber was the room in which the sacred boat, used to carry the statue of the god on feast days, was kept.

The pylon was a large gateway with two towers.





whose dealings one lives, the father and mother of all men'. His rule covered all sides of life. The laws he made were thought of as coming from the gods and even governed the way men behaved. His people took all this completely for granted and were obedient in carrying out their jobs, however humble, to which they considered themselves bound for life.

Because of this, the people accepted hard work and poverty without a thought of revolt. Pharaoh was able to employ them to work on his great monuments when the Nile flooded and they were unable to work on the land. Society was part of a changeless way of life, varied only by the rhythms of the season, of night and day, birth and death. No one ever thought of it changing.

It was all the more terrible, therefore, when such a civilization broke down or was overwhelmed by invading barbarians.

By the end of the twenty-second century B.C. the powerful lords and nobles were no longer prepared to obey the pharaoh in all things, and the country went through a very troubled period. The kingdom was split up and again became a number of small areas

The Temple of Horus at Edfou, 300 B.C.





each with its own ruler, rather like the temple-states of earlier days.

The peasants were reduced to the position of serfs. Trade declined, with disastrous effects on the towns in the Delta. Suffering produced revolts, hitherto unheard-of in Egyptian history. There was a complete breakdown of the elaborate system of controls, which had been operated by the central government. The government had organised the imports, the transport of stones for building, the collection of foodstuffs as taxes and their distribution to officials. It had provided an immense amount of employment on canals, pyramids and temples. The irrigation system began to go out of order and in many areas there was no authority to enforce a fair distribution of water.

People were completely bewildered when such catastrophes occurred. This made them ready for new religious beliefs. In this time of crisis the figure of Osiris came to have new meaning. This suffering god, according to the myth, was wrongfully slain but came back to life through the care of his wife, Isis, and her son Horus. No doubt suggested by the annual cycle of vegetation, which decays to spring up later, or by the rise and fall of the Nile flood, this myth gave the ordinary people an assurance of rebirth after death.

The Egyptians and their gods. *Bottom right* The god Osiris had the heart of a dead person weighed on the scales against Truth. If found light weight, the 'ka' or spirit of the dead person would be given to the Devourer of Souls





Horus                      Osiris                      Isis

*Note:* The gods have their own special head-dresses



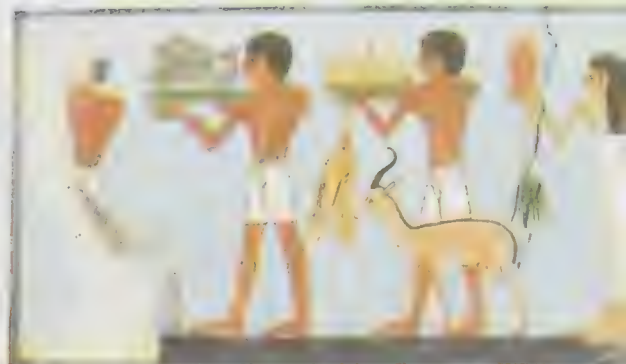
Rock tomb

Formerly the pharaoh alone had this privilege and could rise again after death. He had been god to the people but now as his power weakened they turned to Osiris as a saviour.

Eventually two new dynasties, the Eleventh and Twelfth, reunited and extended the country and made Thebes the new capital. This period is called the Middle Kingdom, and it lasted until 1786 B.C. By this time a knowledge of anatomy and medicine had been built up, and portraiture and literature developed. The southern frontier was extended into Numidia.

Again a period of weak government followed and the kingdom split into Upper and Lower Egypt, and the two parts even went to war with one another. Much of the Delta was captured by the Hyksos, a people who invaded from the north-east, bringing with them body armour, bows and horse-drawn chariots.

Everyday life in Egypt: Paintings from Egyptian tombs





Slowly the Egyptians learned to use these new weapons and Ahmose I threw out the Hyksos and reunited the whole country about 1567 B.C. This started the period known as the 'New Kingdom'.

When after these centuries of confusion Egypt was again united, the old religion was restored along with pharaoh and his central government. But the worship of Osiris continued to exist at the same time.

The land governed from Thebes was gradually extended. Beyond the land ruled directly from Egypt was a larger area where the local princes were dominated by the power of Egypt, often with Egyptian garrisons (see page 61). Invasions and attacks upon the empire by the Hittites from the north-east and the 'Sea Peoples' from across the Mediterranean were driven back, the latter by Rameses III in a great sea battle fought near the mouth of the Nile.

The fact that Egyptian rule extended over so many peoples encouraged the idea that there was one god instead of many different ones. The pharaoh Akhnaton was a poet and artist, and his hymns to the sun-god, whom he called Aton, are like some of the psalms written later by the Hebrews. He had beautiful works of art made of himself and his queen, Nefertiti, with their daughters, to illustrate how Aton brought love into family and home. But after his death in 1352 B.C. the priests brought the old religion back and scraped his name and that of Aton off the temples and monuments.

After 1100 B.C. the power of Egypt began to weaken. The peasants increasingly grew rebellious under the heavy taxes they had to pay to the pharaoh who used the money to finance his armies fighting the enemies to the north with their iron weapons (see page 58). These enemies were becoming increasingly difficult to overcome. Foreigners were paid to come and fight for Egypt. These men who fought for wages were called mercenaries and became more and more powerful. In 950 B.C. one of them, a Libyan called Sheshonk, whose family had lived in Egypt for some generations, made himself pharaoh. He raided as far as Palestine and in 930 B.C. plundered the Temple of Solomon in Jerusalem. Egypt was not strong and united

Everyday life in Egypt: Paintings from Egyptian tombs





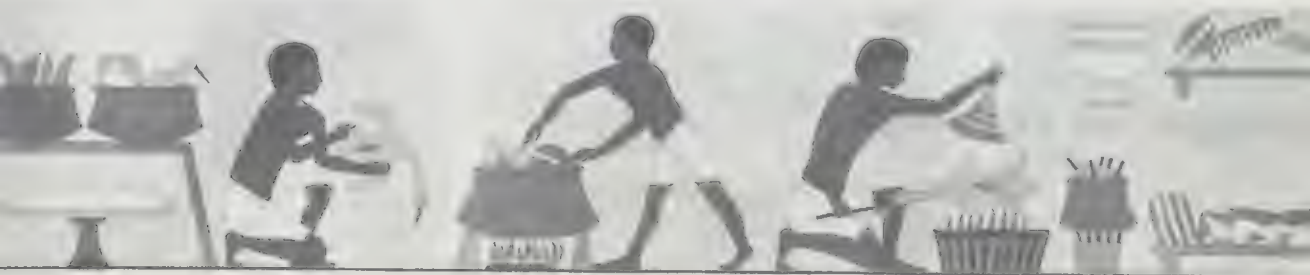
for long. In about 730 B.C. Numidians from the south took over the country for some 70 years, only to be overcome in their turn by the Assyrians from the north in 663 B.C. The Assyrians set up an Egyptian as pharaoh and a period of prosperous trading developed. This was based on Egyptian wheat and copper, bronze, gold, silver, ivory, rare woods, precious stones, myrrh, spices, animal skins and ostrich feathers. So considerable was this trade that attempts were made to establish a sea route from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea and East Africa. An unsuccessful attempt was made to dig a canal from the Nile to the Red Sea. An expedition of Phoenician sailors sailed right round Africa; the journey took them three years and the route proved too long and difficult to use and was forgotten. The Persians conquered Egypt for a time in 526 B.C. Then Egypt was again conquered by Alexander the Great in 332 B.C. He built the city which still bears his name at the western mouth of the Nile. On his death one of his generals Ptolemy set up a foreign monarchy in Egypt which lasted until 30 B.C. when its last queen Cleopatra committed suicide.

### *SUMMARY*

Egyptian civilization was developed on the fertile flood waters of the Nile and protected by the desert and the Mediterranean.—It lasted for some 27 centuries from 3100 B.C. ruled by the pharaohs of thirty dynasties. During the Old Kingdom (2686 B.C.—2181 B.C.) the great Pyramids and Sphinx were built.—The Middle Kingdom (2133—1786 B.C.) extended the Egyptian Empire.—The New Kingdom (1567—1085 B.C.) saw the continued building of great monuments.—Repelled invasions by the Hittites and others.—After this period there was a time of extensive trading.—Conquest of the Egyptians by Numidians. Conquest of the Egyptians by Persians.

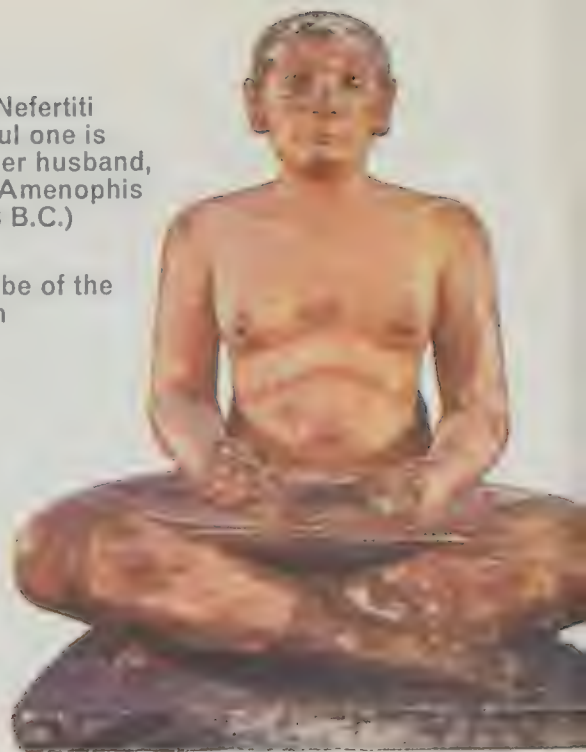
The Egyptians developed writing, the first calendar based on the sun, the first clocks, surveying, arithmetic, medicine, portraiture, literature, mummification, irrigation and trade.

The last Egyptian Pharaoh was defeated by Alexander the Great who founded Alexandria.—His general Ptolemy and his family ruled Egypt until Cleopatra committed suicide in 30 B.C.





(left) Queen Nefertiti ('The beautiful one is come') and her husband, the pharaoh Amenophis IV (1375-1358 B.C.)



(right) A scribe of the Old Kingdom

Everyday life in Egypt: Paintings from Egyptian tombs





## CHAPTER 3: EARLY CIVILIZATION IN INDIA

Another great river civilization was around the river Indus. In prehistoric times the valley of the river was jungle, but Neolithic farming villages existed in the hills to the north-west. Then suddenly men moved into the river valley and built great cities such as Mohenjo-daro, Chanhudaro and Harappa.

This new way of life may have been influenced by the development of the cities of Mesopotamia some 1,400 miles to the east, and certainly there was trade between them. The Indus civilization was different from that of Mesopotamia. The streets of Ur twisted about, while those of Mohenjo-daro were carefully laid out with streets, crossing at right angles, dividing the city into equal blocks of houses. The houses were built of fine bricks which were lightly baked, not dried in the sun, and the system of drainage was better. The large houses had more than one floor and had bathrooms, lavatories with running water and rubbish chutes connected to ashbins below. Both Ur and Mohenjo-daro had large granaries, wells and baths, the largest being 170 yards long and 95 yards wide.

However, far less is known about this civilization because no one has yet been able to *decipher* the writing and no ruins of temples or palaces have been discovered.

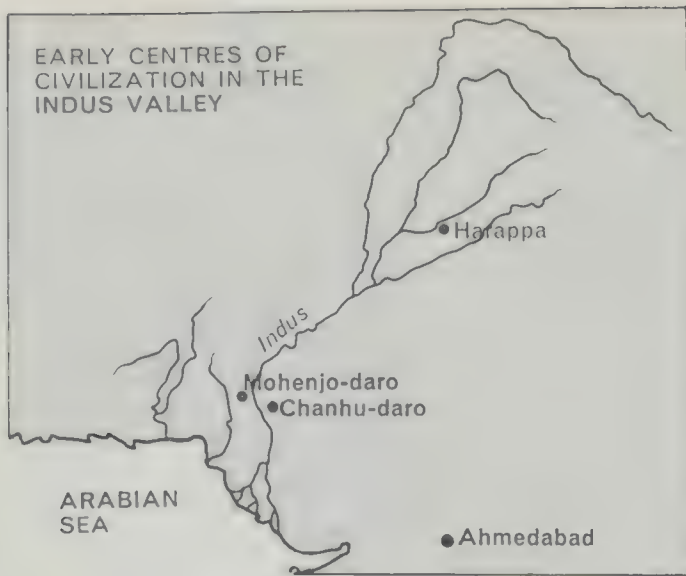
The peasants who farmed the land around the cities grew wheat, barley and dates, and bullock carts were used before the Egyptians had learnt how to use harness or wheels.

Another difference between the two civilizations is that the Indus civilization appears to have changed very little. Each generation merely repeated the way of life of their fathers until suddenly, about 1500 B.C., the civilization was destroyed by invaders known as Indo-Aryans from central Asia (see page 91).

The Aryans spoke an Indo-European language (see page 58) from which later developed Sanskrit, the language in which the sacred Indian books are written. At present there is little archaeological or literary evidence concerning the Aryans until the sixth century B.C.

The use of writing had disappeared, together with the ability to organize cities. The only information that is available is from four collections, or 'Vedas', of their hymns. These collections were

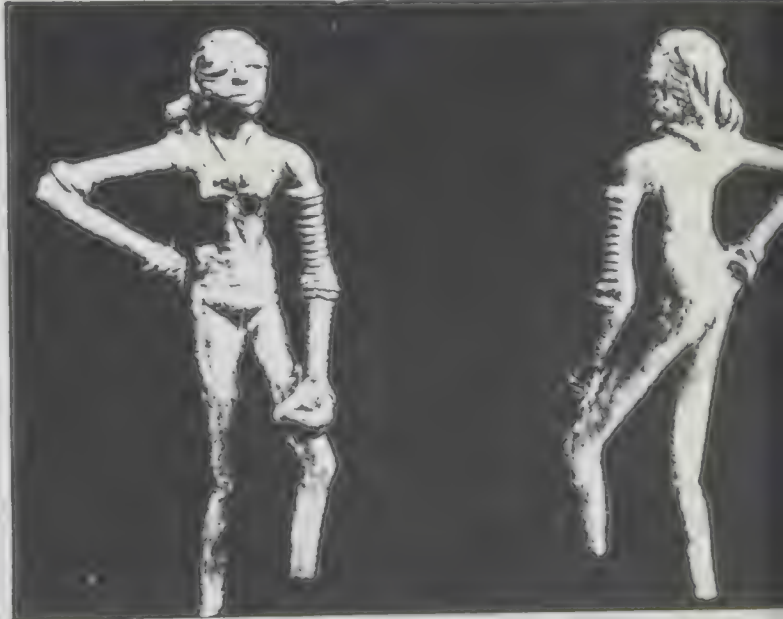




A seal from Mohenjo-daro showing a man up a tree with a tiger below



Bust of a nobleman from Mohenjo-daro



Bronze figurine of a dancing girl from Mohenjo-daro

Excavation of burial at Lothal, a Harappan site next to Ahmedabad



handed down by word of mouth from generation to generation until they were eventually written down. The Vedas describe the Aryans as villagers who ploughed the land, tended cattle and used light horse-drawn chariots for war.

Hinduism developed as a religion of the Aryans and as a way of life. The three great books of Hinduism, 'Ramayana', 'Mahabharata' and 'Upanishads', were all written during the 'Epic Age' from 1000-600 B.C. The Epics are as important to the Hindu as the Bible is to the Christian. The 'Ramayana' tells how Prince Rama, aided by the monkey god, rescued his wife from the demon-king of Ceylon; the 'Mahabharata' of a war between two tribes for the throne of Delhi; and the 'Upanishads' is a series of essays on the ideas of Hinduism.

The people were divided into four groups or castes: the Brahmins whose duties were to teach the Vedas; the Kshatriyas or warriors; the Vaisyas or farmers; and the Sudras or servants. The first three of these castes were Aryan, the Sudras were the earlier people.

The Hindu believes man has a spirit (Atman) which could eventually join the great spirit of the world (Brahma). It is the duty of man to try to reach this level. When a man dies his spirit lives on and is reborn or reincarnated in another living thing. If he has led a good life his spirit is reborn in a person of higher caste; if he has led a bad life into a lower caste or even a plant or animal. This series of rebirths or reincarnations goes on until the spirit of the man is joined with Brahma.

The Hindu's position in life or his caste is controlled by his religion. The number of castes has increased rapidly. By the time of Christ there were 50. Each caste has been divided into sub-castes. There are 2,000 sub-castes of Brahmins alone and each has its own rules. One sub-caste may eat with another but not marry into it. The rules of caste state when and how the members of the caste must wash, who they can marry, what work they do, what food must be eaten, and so on. The Hindu is expected to obey all these rules and is rewarded or punished accordingly when he is reborn in his next life.

After 600 B.C. the use of iron became widespread throughout India. Through its use, cavalry and infantry were now able to defeat the charioteers. Coins were used and writing re-introduced. Trade with Mesopotamia was restored and irrigation was developed along the Ganges which became the centre of Indian kingdoms.

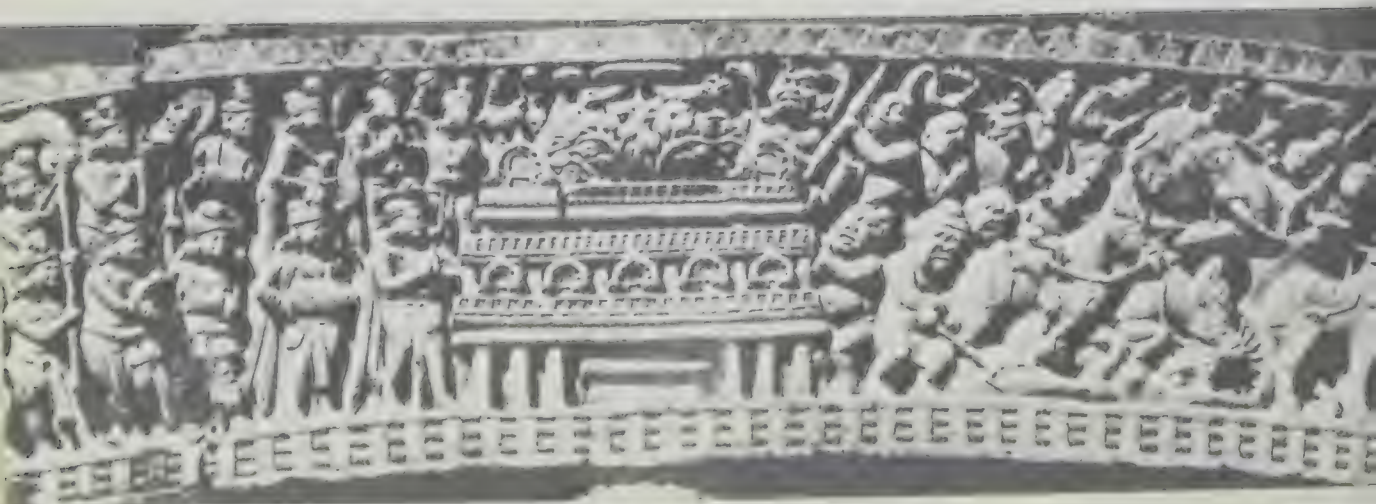


These changes led to new religions, introduced by two men. One was Gautama Siddhartha who died about 485 B.C. and who became known to his followers as the 'Buddha' or Enlightened One, the other Mahavira (540-467 B.C.) who founded Jainism.

Buddha said that there are two extremes in human life, one a way of life that thinks only of pleasure, and one which goes to the other



Detail from the West Gateway of the Temple of Sanchi, Bhopal, showing the temptation of Buddha





extreme and tries to avoid all pleasures because they are sinful. Buddha taught that both of these were wrong. Man should seek Nirvana, where men were freed from continuous reincarnation. This could be done by following the middle path of right views, right ambitions, right speech, right way of earning a living, right conduct, right effort and right thought. His followers, Buddhists, were to live a kindly life and must not harm any living creature.

Jainism, the belief of the Jains, did not include caste, sacrifices or local gods. The main part of their belief is not to take any life. They will not even eat roots which have been taken from the ground. Monks and nuns have masks to prevent themselves swallowing insects and even sweep the ground to avoid treading on them. They are, of course, strict vegetarians.

Small kingdoms developed in northern India and by the middle of the fourth century B.C. the whole of the plains of the Indus and Ganges was ruled by the king of Magadha from his capital of Bihar.

### *SUMMARY*

Urban civilization appeared in Indus Valley c. 2500 at Mohenjo-daro and Harappa, carefully planned cities with elaborate drainage systems. —This civilization developed writing and the use of the wheel, but was destroyed by the Aryans about 1500 B.C.

The Aryans developed Hinduism, based on sacred writings in Sanskrit.—People lived in castes with strict rules.—Reincarnation.

Buddha (c. 500 B.C.) taught how to live by living a kindly life in the right way.—The Jains refused to take any form of life.—By the fourth century B.C. the Indo-Gangetic plain was ruled by the king of Magadha, from Bihar.

The Buddhist Temple at Sanchi, Bhopal



## CHAPTER 4: CHINA

The fourth of the great early river civilizations is that of China and the Yellow River. The Neolithic Age in China began about 4000 B.C. Millet was first grown and then, about 2500 B.C., barley and rice were also cultivated. Domesticated animals, pottery and silk-making were developed. It is likely that the development of farming was due to ideas which originally came from the Fertile Crescent.

About 2000 B.C. the Chinese entered the Bronze Age, but the first period about which very much is known is that from 1523–1027 B.C. in what was later called the Shang Dynasty. Bronze weapons were developed and the use of horses and chariots, and a system of writing.

The Hwang Ho or Yellow River is a river which floods violently and has often changed its course across northern China. One of the excavated sites of this period is Anyang, probably the last capital of the Shang Dynasty. Anyang was built in a bend of the river. The large houses and temples were built of wood on packed earth foundations. The Shang ruler led his people in battle and acted as high priest. His government arranged the irrigation of the land and the storage of grain. The people worshipped the spirits of their ancestors and frequently asked their advice. This was done by inscribing a question on an ox bone or tortoise shell. A hot bronze point was then held to the bone until it cracked and the type of crack which appeared answered the question. Thousands of these bones have been excavated.

The Shang rulers were burned in coffins in chambers placed at the centre of great pits. Around the chamber the possessions of the ruler were placed – ornaments, sometimes of jade, weapons, horses, chariots and dogs. Charioteers, slaves and servants were also sacrificed and buried.

About 1027 B.C. the Shang Dynasty was overthrown by invaders from the highlands to the south-west who set up the Chou Dynasty which lasted until 256 B.C. The conquered land was given to the nobles. On the death of a noble his eldest son inherited all his lands, and so they were not divided into smaller plots. This is called the law of primogeniture from the Latin 'primus' = first, and 'gen' = a race. The first Chou rulers, whose title was 'Lord of Heaven', held

control over their nobles by keeping their eldest sons at court in the capital city. Gradually the Chou Empire was extended until it included the Yangtse Valley.

When the way in which the land was shared out to the peasants who tilled it became unfair because the number of people increased, the land was shared out again. The Chou Dynasty was therefore remarkably free from troubles caused by dissatisfied peasants.

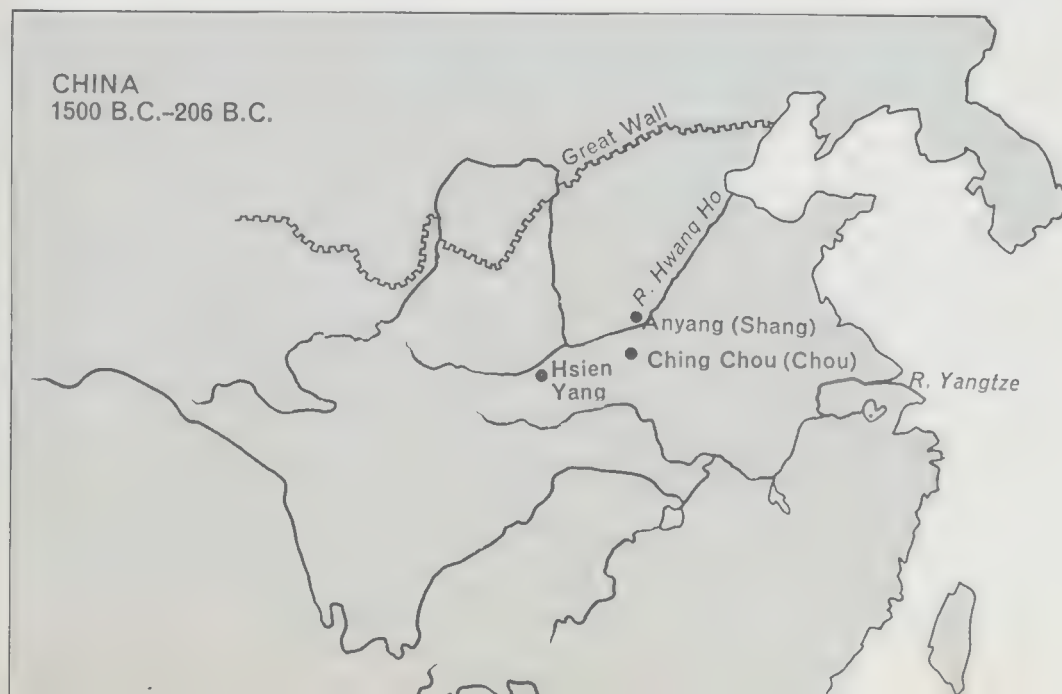
The Chou believed in a heaven which rewarded the good and punished the wicked and this idea was joined with the older Shang ancestor worship. Education was encouraged and all people were expected to follow the strict rules of behaviour.

In 771 B.C. barbarians in the west of China defeated the Chou who were forced to move their capital eastwards to Ching Chou near the modern Loyang.

From this time on the lords became more and more powerful and the country split into a number of small states.

The most powerful of these states was that of the Ch'u, which controlled the south, and the Ch'in, which guarded the rest of China from the barbarians in the hills to the west. The lords took as much as possible from the peasants. Soldiers became more powerful and by the sixth century B.C. iron weapons were introduced and cavalry replaced chariots.

In spite of these troubles Chinese civilization developed. The buffalo-drawn plough and copper coins were introduced. Trade grew and the war lords employed civil servants who developed the art of writing. Literature developed and this was the period of a number of great thinkers or philosophers.







China at the time of Confucius, c. 606 B.C.

The main problem which faced these thinkers was how to achieve a peaceful civilized way of life once more. To work out how to run a country perfectly, man has to be studied. Confucius was the greatest of the Chinese philosophers. Born in the province of Lu in 551 B.C., he was well educated and was a teacher. He admired the old Chou way of life and his teachings were based on it. Confucius thought that a man himself was not important, what was important was his relations with other people. He had to behave properly to all people. This good behaviour was to be obtained by education and persuasion rather than by force. Confucius himself did not write very much, but some of his pupils wrote down many of his sayings after he died in the 'Analects', now one of the Chinese classics.

In spite of the ideas of the philosophers, the struggles between the powerful lords continued and the period from 453 to 221 B.C. is called the Period of the Warring States. Slowly Ch'in became the most powerful state. Its rulers controlled how all its people lived. Labour could thus be provided to improve irrigation, more food was grown, and the population increased. Finally in 221 B.C. its ruler Shih Huang-ti, using masses of foot-soldiers with iron swords and cross-bows, brought all the country under his rule and Ch'in gave its name to it.

To obtain complete control Shih Huang-ti burnt the classics and persecuted scholars. It was an attempt to control even the thoughts

of people, much as it is being done in China in modern times. The country was divided up into provinces which were themselves divided into districts. Each of them was controlled by officials appointed by the emperor. The empire was enlarged, reaching as far as north Vietnam, and roads were built to link the new provinces to the capital. The whole of China now had the same law, language and systems of measurement. To weaken the power of the nobles, the land was given to the peasants who paid taxes to the emperor.

To keep out the Hsuing-nu or Huns (see p. 196) of Mongolia, the Great Wall of China was built. This was a 20-foot high wall built of stones, brick and earth. It was some 2,000 miles long and carried a roadway on top 15 feet wide. Every few hundred yards was a fortified tower (for map see page 53).

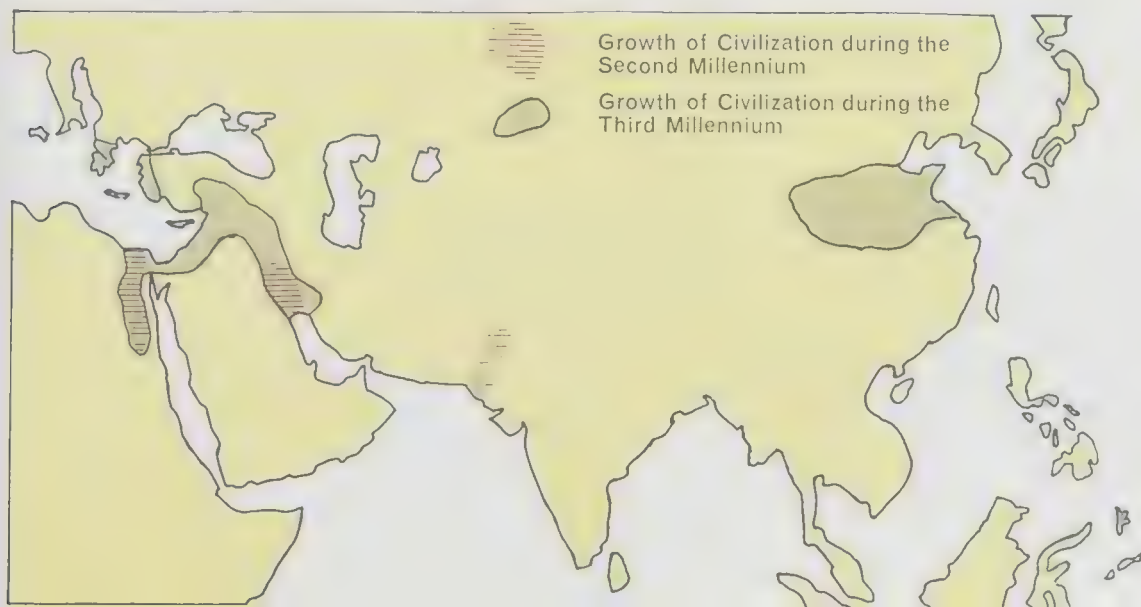
However three years after his death the country rebelled against the harsh laws, taxes and forced labour. These rebellions ended the Ch'in Dynasty in 206 B.C.

### SUMMARY

Chinese Neolithic Period 4000–2500 B.C. around the Yellow River.—The Shang Dynasty 1523–1027 B.C. saw the development of bronze weapons, chariots and writing; and belief in ancestor worship.—The Shang Dynasty was replaced by the Chou Dynasty 1027–256 B.C.—A peaceful and prosperous period ended 771 B.C. after which the country was split up between rival provinces.—Nevertheless civilization developed – the plough, copper coins, trade and literature.

Confucius, the greatest of a number of philosophers, emphasized right relations between people.—The Period of the Warring States started in 453 and ended in 221 B.C. when Shih Huang-ti of Ch'in became ruler of all China and built the Great Wall to keep out the Huns.

The Growth of Civilization, 2nd and 3rd millenniums B.C.



## Section 3: THE CRADLE OF CIVILIZATION

### CHAPTER 1: BABYLON AND THE HITTITES

After Ur was sacked in 2006 B.C. (see page 32) Mesopotamia became divided between six kingdoms. Although the capital of each kingdom was in one of the old cities the city-states had disappeared for ever. The land, the men and cattle no longer belonged to the gods as they had in early times, or even to the temples and kings as they had under the Third Dynasty of Ur. The land was given out to the people who lived as small farmers. These were free people and the merchants earned a living by buying and selling to them.

For just over 200 years the six kingdoms ruled Mesopotamia and their possessions stretched from the Persian Gulf to the Mediterranean Sea. During this time the lands possessed by these kingdoms changed hands as strong rulers came and went. Then, within 35 years, one of them, Babylon under King Hammurabi, defeated the others, with the exception of Assyria. Later, however, in 1756 B.C. Hammurabi defeated Assyria.

Babylon had not been an important city of the Sumerians. It was however in a very strategic position, situated on the east bank of the Euphrates where the two great rivers of Mesopotamia are less than 40 miles apart. So it was easy for a strong king of Babylon to control traffic on both rivers.

Hammurabi became king of Babylon in 1792 B.C. and reigned for 43 years. He was a war leader and statesman, who brought wise government to his country. Babylon was a small kingdom, less than the size of Yorkshire, England or Connecticut State, U.S.A. Although it was surrounded by larger states, he had doubled its size in 10 years, added to the temples and fortified the towns. Babylon became a thriving capital city, where art and literature flourished.

Having built up his empire, Hammurabi strengthened the system of government. Local governors were carefully controlled by the king, although each city had an 'Assembly of Elders' to decide matters of local interest; Marduk, the god of Babylon, replaced Enlil, but otherwise the old beliefs of Sumer and Akkad were not changed. Temples were rebuilt and improved as they had been by earlier rulers.



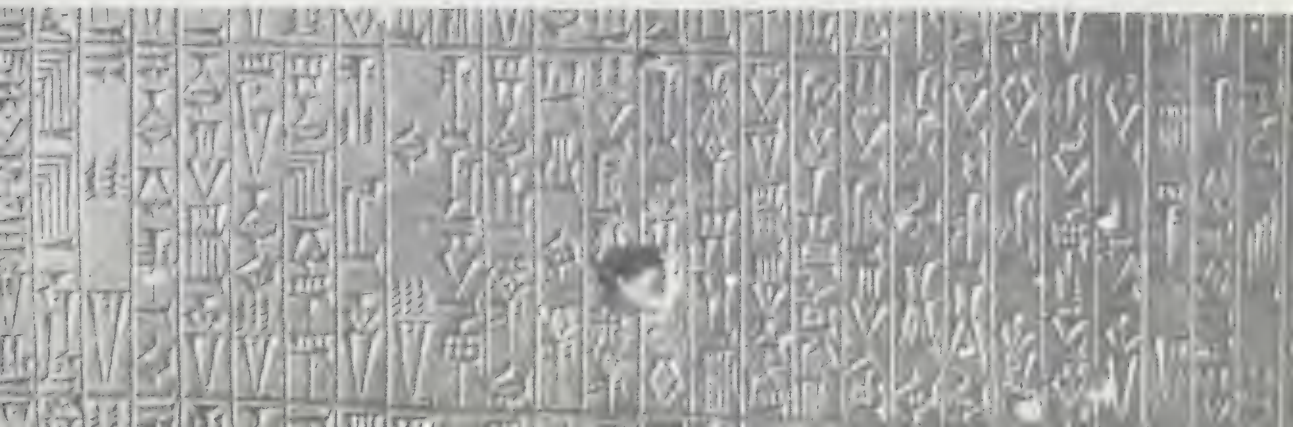


Hammurabi before Shamash, from the stele (stone monument) at Sippar

\*In Mari in 1760 B.C., silver was considered to be fifteen times more valuable than lead, gold four times that of silver, and iron twice as valuable as gold

Hammurabi gave decisions on disputes. These decisions were based on those given by earlier kings in similar cases. These are called precedents. If no precedent existed Hammurabi had to make decisions. All these decisions were recorded on clay tablets and are called 'The Code of Hammurabi'. At the end of his reign a stone

Part of the Code of Hammurabi



monument was set up in the temple of Shamash, the sun god, in Sippar and this listed over 282 laws dealing with offences of all kinds. Some seem very hard. For example, if a surgeon operated on a free man who died as a result of the operation, the surgeon's hand should be cut off; slaves were shaven and branded like cattle and had few rights. Other cases are similar to modern law. For example, when a woman died her dowry went to her sons and was not returned to her father who originally gave it.

The king was kept well informed. A continuous stream of messengers went out from Babylon with the king's decisions and returned with reports and requests. All these have been found recorded by scribes on their tablets. From these tablets and from excavations such as those of Sir Leonard Woolley at Ur, much is known about how the people lived. There were private schools teaching writing, religion, history and mathematics. The houses were very much like old Arab houses of today. The lower walls were made of burnt bricks, the upper of mud bricks, and both were plastered over and whitewashed. The owner lived on the upper floor, the servants and visitors used the ground floor. The drains were so good that one excavation found that they still carried rain water away although they had not been cleaned or repaired for nearly 4,000 years!

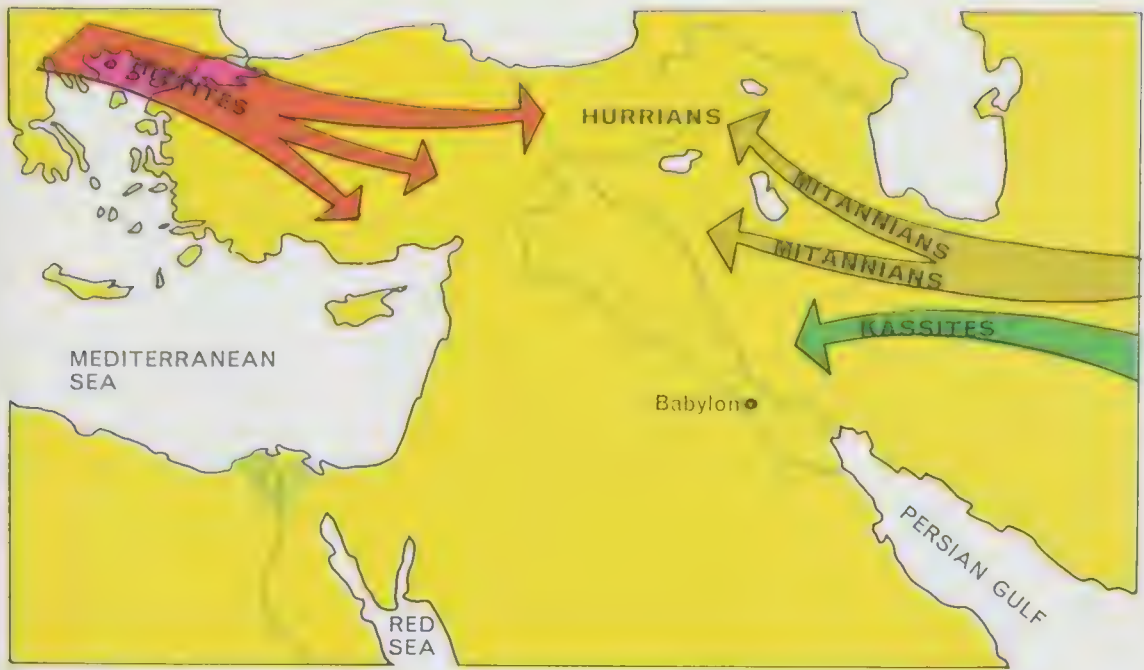
Soon after Hammurabi's death Mesopotamia was again invaded. These invasions were part of a vast movement or migrations of peoples known as Indo-Europeans (or Indo-Aryans) because their original language was the language from which many languages in India and Europe have evolved. These people came from central Asia.

Although no written trace of this language has been found, people who study languages have discovered from the words these people used that they were herdsmen who were skilled in breeding horses, that they used the wheel and metals, and lived in tribes.

The branch of the Indo-Europeans which arrived in Mesopotamia were the Hittites and the Mitanni, both of whom had also settled in Asia Minor which is now modern Turkey.

Asia Minor had developed farming at a very similar date to Jarmo and Jericho, and had developed in a similar way to Mesopotamia with which it had traded. Halaf and Al-Ubaid pottery from Mesopotamia has been found in Asia Minor.





Indo-European migrations in the Near East, c. 1500 B.C.

The population of Asia Minor had increased during the Early Bronze Age (3500 to 2300 B.C.) and civilization flourished on the west coast in such cities as Troy. From here it spread into what is modern Greece and into the Aegean Islands.

The west coast of Asia Minor took several centuries to recover from the Hittite invasions but the centre of Asia Minor soon recovered and became a very important trading area and centre of the Near East metal industry. Silver, gold and semi-precious stones were exported south to Assyria and tin and cloth imported, payments usually being made in silver. Further invasions of Indo-Europeans established the Old Hittite Kingdom in this area about 1750 B.C.

The Hurrians were another race of people who had established kingdoms on the Upper Tigris and Euphrates during the time of the Akkadian Empire. Although little is known of them it is likely that by 1500 B.C. they had established a powerful kingdom. It was to this kingdom that the Mitanni *migrated* during the fifteenth and fourteenth centuries B.C. and took control of the country and taught the natives how to train and use horses.

A similar process was taking place to the south-east where another Indo-European aristocracy was building the Kassites into a warrior nation. Forces were therefore building up around the Babylonian Empire.



Hammurabi's attempt to build up Babylon as the capital of his empire at the expense of the old cities had caused resentment, particularly in the historic cities of the south, and soon after his death in 1750 B.C. a series of revolts broke out and the kingdom was broken up.

Hammurabi's heirs stubbornly fought these revolts and the attacks of the Kassites. In 1595 B.C. the Hittites, who had been extending their kingdom southwards, marched down the Euphrates and sacked Babylon in 1595 B.C. The Hittites withdrew back home northwards with their booty but Mesopotamia was occupied and governed until 1162 B.C. by Kassite kings.

Empires in the Near East c. 1400 B.C.



At the moment there is comparatively little information for this period of Kassite rule. We know that they restored peace to the country and by 1500 they governed Babylon and Sumer. Like the earlier rulers they rebuilt the temples and ziggurats. The tower on the ziggurat of one king built some 20 miles west of modern Baghdad was 170 feet high. Like other Indo-Aryans they developed the use of the horse, both for fast war chariots and for wagons, but there was little development of literature or the arts.

Until 1350 B.C. Kassite Babylon was at peace apart from the campaign which recaptured Sumer. The rest of the Middle East was at war as Egypt fought and conquered Syria. In the early fourteenth century B.C. the nations became more friendly; the Assyrians, under Mitanni domination, and the Kassites sent presents to Thebes, the capital of Egypt.

In 1372 B.C. Suppilulumas, the Hittite king, led a daring raid which plundered Washukani the Mitanni capital and raided as far as Egyptian Syria. Soon after Pharaoh Amenophis III died, the Mitanni became involved in a civil war and the Hurrians and Assyrians joined in. The latter were victorious and became independent once again. By 1334 B.C. the Mitanni kingdom had disappeared and been replaced by two, the Hittites to the north and the Assyrians to the south.

Meanwhile Assyria was growing in power and in 1271 B.C. the Egyptians and the Hittites, alarmed by this growth, made an alliance. Further invasions from the north poured into Asia Minor (see page 91) and by 1200 B.C. the invaders had defeated the Hittites and their kingdom disappeared for ever.

### *SUMMARY*

After 2006 B.C. Mesopotamia divided into six small kingdoms.—Hammurabi, king of Babylon 1792–1750 B.C., conquered the other five.—Hammurabi built up the power of Babylon and drew up a system of laws, 'The Code of Hammurabi'.

For some 200 years Asia Minor and Mesopotamia were invaded by Indo-Europeans, the Hittites and Mitanni who came from Central Asia.—In 1595 B.C. Babylon was taken by the Kassites who ruled until 1162 B.C. The Mitanni kingdom, weakened by civil war, was defeated by the Hittites and the Assyrians, while the Egyptians ruled the Mediterranean coast.—The Hittites were overwhelmed by further invasions from the north.

## CHAPTER 2: ASSYRIA

Assyria lay to the north of Mesopotamia. To its north and east the wild people from almost inaccessible mountains were a constant threat. To the west lay the steppe which led to Syria and the important trade routes, and to the south Babylon blocked the way to the Persian Gulf.

The Assyrians employed skilled metal workers who produced very fine bronze, gold and silver plates, vessels and ornaments. High quality carved ivories have also been found. They also used their knowledge of metals to produce weapons which, with the use of horses and bows, enabled them to become a most formidable war-like nation.

The Assyrians fought to protect Assyria, the land loyal to their god Assur. They thought that the wicked unbelievers who surrounded this land deserved any massacre and robbery they suffered from their raids. For this reason, and also being greedy for loot and eager for fighting, the Assyrians raided them almost every year. From about 900 B.C. there was an increase in the number of lands which paid tribute to the king of Assyria and worshipped Assur in order to avoid these terrible raids.

Two powerful Assyrian kings who led the raids were Ashurnasirpal II (884-859 B.C.) and his son Shalmaneser III. They terrorized their enemies, whom they treated with great cruelty. Ashurnasirpal was also a hunter and builder; his palace at Nimrud covered six acres.

Shalmaneser carried his raids as far as Palestine and the Persian Gulf, but the end of his reign was troubled by civil war and revolution. Meanwhile the kingdom of Urartu to the north was becoming powerful. Urartu was a kingdom based on slavery. The warrior rulers built forts, towns and irrigation canals. The scale of their building can be judged from the size of the palace of one of the kings of Urartu at Teisbaini. This building used for storing food, oil, wine and weapons covered 10 acres and had 120 rooms. The whole surrounding wall was built of stone and sun-dried bricks of clay and straw with great towers at the corners. The palace rooms themselves were up to 32 feet high, no doubt to keep them cool during the hot summer, up to 100 feet long but only 13 feet wide, and were roofed with beams of fir, poplar or oak.



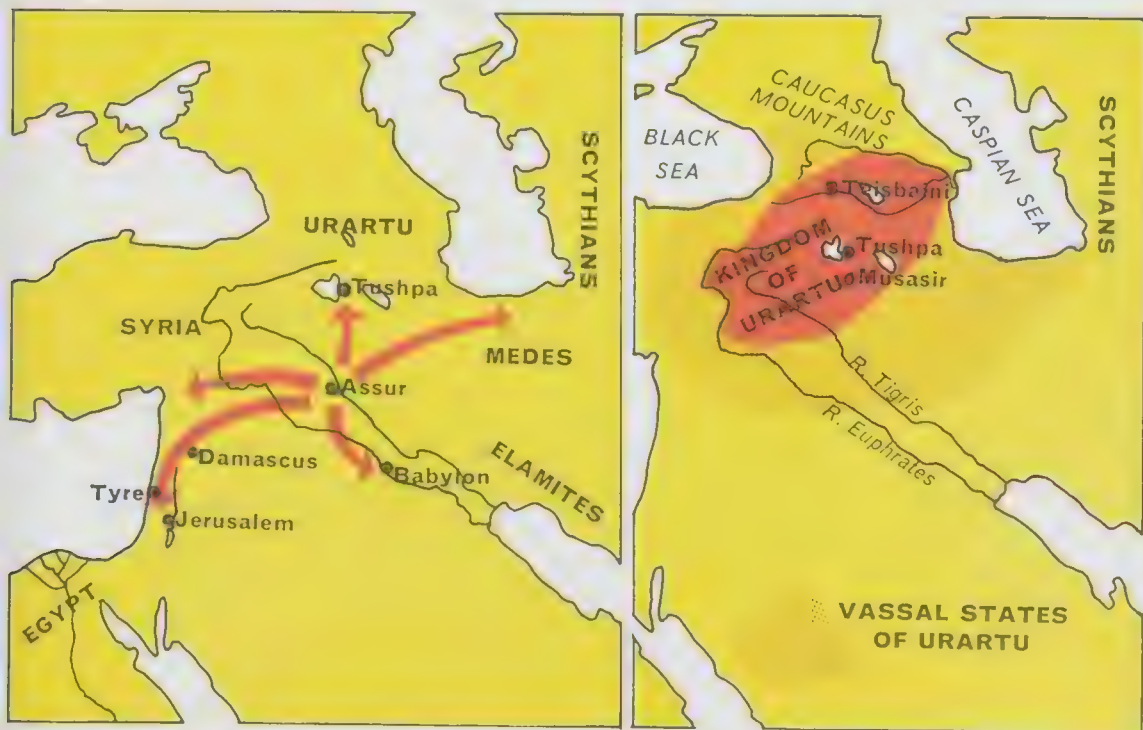
The warriors, farmers and tradesmen lived in flat-roofed houses, usually of three rooms. The main room was lit by light which came through a hole in the ceiling, through which smoke from the fire also escaped. This city of Teisbaini was stormed after a short siege and set on fire by the Scythians in 585 B.C. Archaeologists can even date this attack to the first half of August because the falling buildings covered the town and they know that the wheat had been harvested but the grapes were not yet ripe; flowers which have been preserved over the centuries were those which bloom in late July or early August. Urartu reached its greatest extent in the middle of the eighth century B.C. under King Argistis I and his successor Sardur III (c. 749-734 B.C.) whose capital was Tushpa on Lake Van.

About this time the power of Assyria had reached a very low state. However Tiglathpileser III (745-727 B.C.) set about strengthening his kingdom. The army was changed from slaves and peasants who used to leave their jobs to go on an annual raid to a trained regular army which went out to conquer new provinces.

Each province was placed under a governor responsible to the king. The governors of each province had to ensure that tribute was sent to the king and were responsible for law and order and raising troops. To prevent future rebellions thousands of people were moved from their homes to distant places.

In a series of campaigns Tiglathpileser defeated Sardur II of Urartu and greatly extended the power of Assyria.

The campaigns of Tiglathpileser III 745-727 B.C. The kingdom of Urartu



The origins of the next great ruler of Assyria, Sargon II, are not known. He took the title of the founder of the Akkadian Empire (see page 30) and under his rule the whole of Syria and Palestine, with the exception of Judah, were added to the empire and Musasir the most sacred city of Urartu was conquered and the god of Urartu taken away. Revolts in Babylon were crushed and the kings of Cyprus (a country, the Assyrians described as 'seven days journey in the sea of the setting sun') swore allegiance to Assyria. In 717 B.C. Sargon began building a great city called Dur-Sharrukin. However the great city was never completed. In 705 B.C. Sargon was killed. His successors preferred to live in Nineveh and Sargon's city slowly fell into disrepair and ruin.

Sargon's descendants ruled Assyria until 609 B.C. and fought many campaigns, mostly to keep back the enemies of Assyria. Sennacherib (704-681 B.C.) put down a revolt in Phoenicia (see pages 92-96) and Palestine and attacked Judah in 701 B.C. Ezechias, king of Judah, agreed to give 30 talents of gold, 800 talents of silver, all kinds of valuable treasures as well as his daughters, his harem and his male and female musicians to Sennacherib. It was after this at Pelusium, some 30 miles east of the modern Suez Canal, that the camp of the Assyrian army was attacked by rats. The rats brought the plague with them and almost the whole army died.

Sennacherib sacked the old sacred city of Babylon in 689 B.C. The horror caused led one of his own sons to murder him while he was praying in a temple.

During his reign great irrigation schemes had been built and this helped to improve farming. The old royal palace at Nineveh was built up as the capital of the great empire. All provinces sent their

A two-horse Assyrian war chariot carrying a driver, shield-bearer and two bowmen. Notice stirrups were not yet in use and the horses were harnessed from the neck and not the shoulder





Assyrians storm a walled city. The Assyrian army had a corps of engineers



most precious goods to help in the building, beams of cedar and doors of sweet-smelling cyprus ornamented with copper; huge cast-bronze lions and sculptured limestone; while around the city was a great park in which all kinds of fruit trees and herbs were planted. This was irrigated by water from a special canal which stretched away to the mountains.

Esarhaddin, Sennacherib's youngest son, returned from exile, drove out his brother who had killed his father, and rebuilt Babylon. This pleased the people of Babylon and prevented any serious rebellion in the south. To the north the empire was threatened. The Scythians (see page 63) were advancing into Asia Minor forcing other tribes before them, but Esarhaddin defeated them. Esarhaddin's great achievement was the conquest of Egypt in 671 B.C. However two years later Egypt rebelled and Esarhaddin died on the way to put down the rebellion and was succeeded by his son Ashurbanipal.

Ashurbanipal put down the Egyptian rebellion and captured Thebes. After yet another rebellion Thebes was sacked and destroyed, and in 669 B.C. Tyre, then an impregnable island, was starved into surrender. Revolts in Arabia, Babylon and by the





The Assyrian Empire at its greatest extent c. 660 B.C.

Elamites were ruthlessly crushed, but about 655 B.C. the Egyptians revolted and threw out the Assyrians. Nevertheless, although the enemies had been defeated, the conquered peoples hated the Assyrians for their destruction and cruelty and the army was weakened by a century of almost ceaseless warfare.

Ashurbanipal died in 631 B.C. and civil war broke out which weakened the country. The governor of Babylon, Nabopolassar a Chaldean (Kassite) revolted and set up a New Babylonian Dynasty (see pages 75–77). To the east the Medes had thrown off the control of the Scythians and had become a great military nation. In 614 B.C. they invaded and the next year sacked Assur. They were joined by the Babylonians and in 612 B.C. Nineveh itself was sacked, and the king of Assyria killed. By 609 B.C. the last Assyrian forces were defeated and the great Assyrian Empire was no more.



\*Nineveh covered 1,800 acres and housed 120,000 people

Most of our knowledge of the Assyrians comes from their inscriptions. There are over 25,000 tablets and fragments in the British Museum alone. Not only were the deeds of the Assyrians recorded but tablets from Sumer, Akkad and Babylon were also carefully collected and stored. The Assyrians therefore had all the knowledge of past civilizations in Mesopotamia. They studied zoology, botany and mineralogy and had some knowledge of lands as far away as the Arctic. Their greatest knowledge however was in mathematics, astronomy and medicine. They also used cube and square roots and quadratic equations which today are taught to students who are above average in mathematics. This knowledge of mathematics was used in their study of the sun and stars. The paths of the sun and planets across the sky were carefully recorded and about 375 B.C. a Babylonian astronomer worked out the time of a solar year (see page 4) with an error of only 4 minutes 32.65 seconds.

The Mesopotamians were great measurers and recorders of fact and detail. However, they never attempted to give reasons why or how things happened and therefore did not develop any science in the modern sense.

The Assyrians believed disease to be a punishment of the gods but they also knew that dust and dirt could lead to disease, and that some diseases were catching.

### *SUMMARY*

Assyria had no geographical frontiers, but used iron weapons and horses to become a powerful, warlike nation.—Assyria resisted Indo-European invasions.—In the ninth century B.C. under Ashurnasirpal II and Shalmaneser III the Assyrians began to raid and pillage the surrounding countries with great cruelty.—Urartu to the north of Assyria was more powerful than Assyria for some 100 years until defeated by Tiglathpileser of Assyria in the mid-eighth century after which Assyria dominated the Near East until its defeat in 609 B.C.—Sennacherib built up Nineveh as its capital city, and his son Esarhaddon conquered Egypt.—The last great ruler was Ashurbanipal who successfully crushed all revolts except that of Egypt.—In 612 B.C. the Medes and Babylonians sacked Nineveh.

The Assyrians collected all the knowledge of past civilizations in Mesopotamia, which was greatest in medicine, astronomy and mathematics.—The Mesopotamians only recorded facts and never tried to explain them, so modern science did not develop.

## CHAPTER 3: THE HEBREWS

The history of the Hebrews is recorded in detail in the Old Testament and its earliest part must be considered against the background of what was happening in other parts of the Fertile Crescent.

Abraham, who lived in Ur about 1850 B.C. when Sumer was suffering from the struggle between Isim and Larsa (see page 57), was the patriarch or father of the Jewish race. He was a nomad and with his family and servants drove his flocks from pasture to pasture. The Old Testament records that 'the Lord said unto Abraham "get thee out of thy country unto a land I will show thee . . . I will make of thee a great nation and in thee all families of the earth shall be blessed"'. Abraham obeyed and went with his wife, family and relations and their possessions to the land of Canaan (which is now called Palestine) and 'the Lord said "Unto thy seed will I give this land"'. (Genesis 12: 20.)

Three generations later the descendants of Abraham arrived in Egypt where Joseph, a great grandson of Abraham, had become a high official of Pharaoh.

Years later, still in Egypt, the descendants of Abraham (now called Hebrews) had become very numerous and were enslaved by Pharaoh. They had to live under the most harsh conditions and under the leadership of Moses escaped from Egypt; the forces of Pharaoh Rameses II which pursued them were lost crossing the Red Sea. Eventually after 40 years in the wilderness of Sinai where God (or Jehovah) revealed the law to Moses, the Hebrews reached the fertile land of Canaan, promised to their forefather Abraham and which they conquered and settled around the year 1200 B.C.

The Hebrews were now divided into twelve tribes, descendants of the twelve sons of Jabos (Israel) who was a grandson of Abraham, and they were ruled by judges or chiefs. Between the fertile valley of the river Jordan and the coast was the neighbouring land of the Philistines who were warlike, well organized and well armed. The Hebrews felt they needed a king to govern and lead all the tribes in place of the judges and Saul was chosen. War and battles continued but it was not until the reign of David (1013-975 B.C.) who followed Saul that the power of the Philistines was broken, and the neighbour-



ing tribes, the Moabites, Ammonites and Edomites, were defeated. David established the Jews as a nation in Palestine. His son, Solomon, followed his father's policy, formed alliances and developed trade by both land and sea. The kingdom grew rich and prosperous; Jerusalem, which had been a small town, was enlarged and fortified with a city wall. A magnificent temple and a royal palace were built in this capital city.

Solomon introduced taxation and forced large numbers of men to work on his buildings. The ten northern tribes objected to the taxation and burdens which were placed upon them. When Solomon's son Rehoboam succeeded as king and refused to improve the conditions and in fact threatened to make them heavier, they set up the kingdom of Israel as a separate state under Jeroboam. So the Hebrews became divided into two kingdoms, Israel in the north and Judah (the other two tribes, Judah and Benjamin) in the south. Later King Omri built a capital city for Israel at Samaria in about 887 B.C.

The kingdom of Israel continued for just over 200 years. It was a period of wars, with invasion always threatened by powerful neighbours. Israel and Judah also went to war with each other. Finally about 714 B.C. King Hoshea refused to pay tribute to

Jerusalem





Assyria. As a result Assyria attacked Israel and after a three-year siege Samaria fell, the ten tribes of Israel became captives and were forced to leave their homes, and the northern kingdom ceased to exist.

In the south Judah, too, was threatened by Assyria. In 720 B.C. Hezekiah defied Sennacherib, king of Assyria, but was defeated and forced to pay a heavy tribute (see page 64). In 638 B.C. King Josiah threw out the Assyrians and their gods and centred worship in the Temple of Jerusalem. Despite continual wars and invasions, Judah continued as a kingdom for 400 years until 586 B.C. when Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, sacked Jerusalem. King Zedekiah was taken to Babylon as a prisoner and the Jewish monarchy came to an end.

From this time on the Jews became a subject race, first under Babylon and then under Persia. During the reign of Cyrus, king of Persia, the Jews who had been taken into captivity were returned to Jerusalem but they remained very weak and poor. The people who had moved in when they left, were very much against them. Later the city of Jerusalem was rebuilt under the leadership of Nehemiah, a man who brought back religious values and practices and reaffirmed the laws of Moses.

In 335 B.C. Alexander the Great entered on his victorious campaign in which he defeated Persia and brought all the other countries, including Judaea (as Judah was then called) under his control.





Camp of nomads in the desert

The mountains of Lebanon



*Below (left)* The Pentateuch or first 5 books of the Old Testament written on a roll of parchment (the skin of sheep or goats)

First the Jews were ruled by the Ptolemys from Egypt until 198 B.C. Then they were ruled for 30 years by the Seleucids in Syria, but in 165 B.C. Judas Maccabeus led a religious revolt against a decree that Judaism was illegal. Struggles for power among the descendants of Judas Maccabeus, together with civil war, brought much unrest for many years. In 63 B.C. Pompey captured Jerusalem and put the Jews under Roman rule and in 37 B.C. the Roman Senate appointed Herod the Great as king. He began rebuilding the Temple in Jerusalem and built a temple to Augustus in Samaria.

Historians now believe that Jesus of Nazareth was born between 6 and 4 B.C. because they have more information than those who worked out the Christian calendar (see page 1).





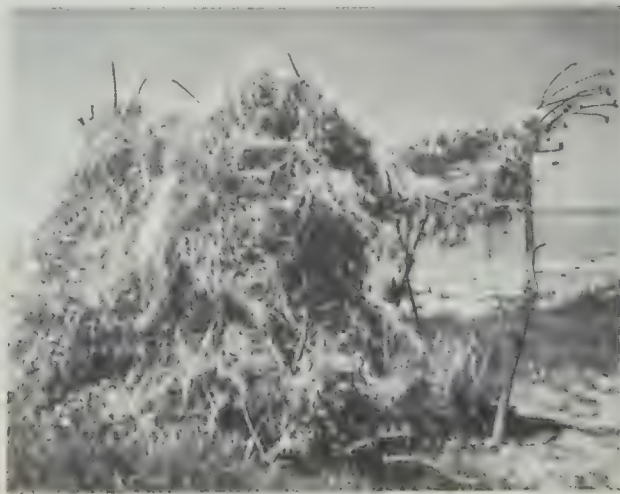
After more than 100 years of occupation by Rome the Jews rebelled in A.D. 69 and Titus mercilessly destroyed Jerusalem in 70. A further rebellion in 132 led to the devastation of the country which was then turned into a Roman colony and the Jews were expelled.

The religion of the Jews was unlike that of other ancient peoples in that they believed in and worshipped the one God (or Jehovah) and not a number of different gods or idols. This sense of one almighty God who is to be obeyed is found in Abraham, his son Isaac, grandson Jacob and other descendants. It was, however, Moses to whom God gave the law on which the religion of the Jews is based. The same ten commandments centuries later passed on to the Christian Churches and are a vital part in the teaching of Christianity. In fact the Christian faith has its birth and origin in the Jews, and no other people have had such an influence on the world over many centuries. For 1,800 years until 1919 they had no country or national home, yet their identity has never been lost although they lived among all the other nations of the earth. The Old Testament records that while they obeyed the law and worshipped God they were strong as a nation; when they ignored the law and turned to idolatry the nation became weak and a prey for the invader. From the time of Moses until today the Jews have celebrated important events in their history every year such as the escape from Egypt (Passover), and the giving of the law to Moses (Pentecost). Priests performed the ritual offices but the most influential figures were the prophets, men who were inspired by God. They include such names as Isaiah, Jeremiah, Amos and Ezekiel.

Sacred branched  
candlestick (see  
Exodus 37; 17, 18)



A Hebrew tabernacle in the desert



These men often proclaimed the unpleasant truth, particularly about heathenish practices, and thought ahead for the nation. They were concerned for their religion and the kind of life the people lived. They often disagreed with the rulers, as for example in the case of King Ahab and his Queen Jezebel who introduced idolatry and were denounced by the prophet Elijah. The prophets exhorted the people to right action and living, and their writings are greatly read and studied today for their spiritual inspiration and direction. The Hebrews have enriched the world by some of the finest literature; the Psalms of David, the writings of the prophets and the historical records, although written up to 3,000 years ago still occupy the highest position in literary worth.

The Jews believe that Jehovah will send a Messiah who will save his chosen people, the Jews. They have not, however, accepted Jesus of Nazareth as the Messiah.

### *SUMMARY*

The history of the Hebrews recorded in the Old Testament. The Jews are descended from Abraham who left Ur about 1850 B.C.—In the eighteenth century B.C. the Hebrews came to Egypt where they remained until led out of slavery by Moses to settle in Canaan around 1200 B.C.—Saul, their first king, then David, who established the Jews as a nation in Palestine, and his son Solomon who built the Temple in Jerusalem and established trading.—931 B.C. the kingdom split into Israel (conquered by Assyria 729 B.C.) and Judah (conquered by Babylon 587 B.C.)—Cyrus, King of Persia, allowed the

The Israelites being led away as slaves after being conquered by Nebuchadnezzar



Jews to return in 520 B.C. Conquered by Alexander the Great 335 B.C. Repeated revolts eventually led to the conquest and destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans A.D. 70.

The Jews believe in Jehovah, the one true God, to whom they were kept faithful by prophets. They believe that a Messiah or Saviour will come, but do not accept Jesus of Nazareth, born 6-4 B.C. as the Messiah.

The river Jordan; the 'promised land', with mountains of Judaea in the background







## CHAPTER 4: NEW BABYLON AND PERSIA

The New Babylonian Dynasty began when Nabopolassar, an Assyrian military leader, rebelled and with the aid of the Medes overthrew the Assyrian Empire in 626 B.C. Nabopolassar took for his share of the spoils the kingdom of Babylon and married his son Nebuchadnezzar II to the daughter of the king of the Medes. Together the Medes and Babylonians sacked Nineveh in 612 B.C. The Medes then withdrew with their booty.

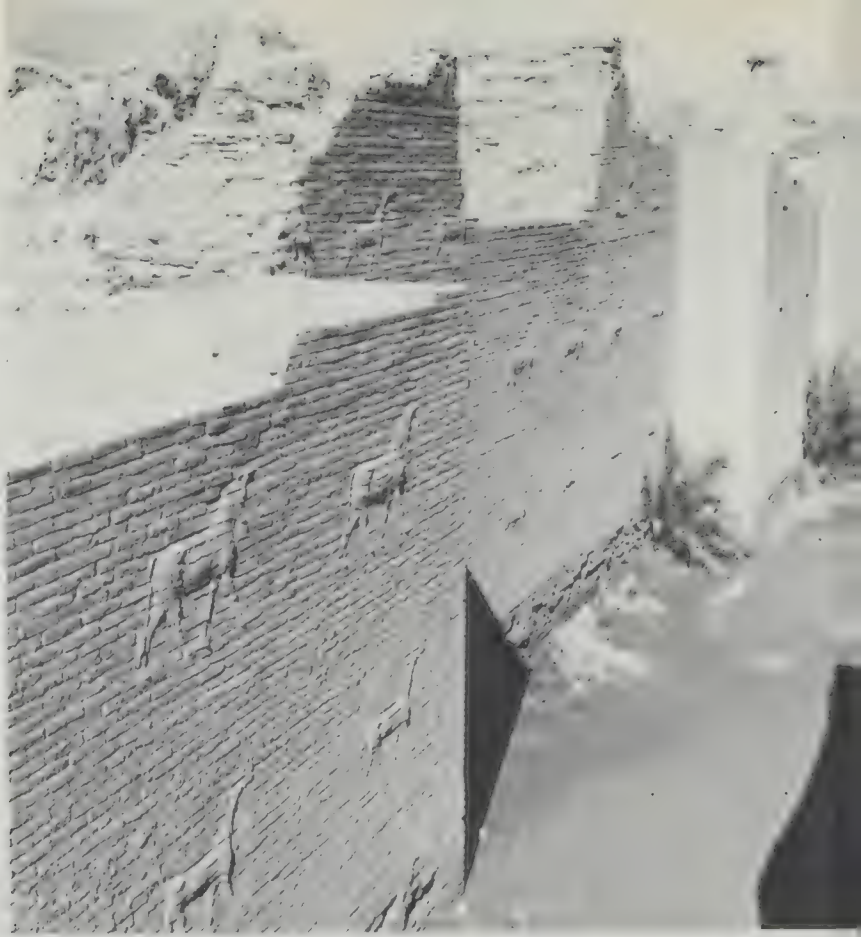
In 605 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar drove the Egyptians from northern Syria and advanced to Pelusium on the Egyptian border before news of his father's death forced him to return to Babylon.

A series of revolts, of which the Jewish revolt was one, forced him to campaign in the west almost every year, and by 575 B.C. he had extended his empire as far as the Egyptian frontier. Meanwhile the Medes and Scythians were increasing their power by conquering Urartu (see pages 62–3). Nebuchadnezzar's reign ended in 562 B.C. He was followed by his son, whose reign was short. In 556 B.C. Nabonidus (556–539 B.C.) was elected king, but although a devout man he proved to be weak.

Three years before Nabonidus became king of Babylon, Cyrus II had become king of the Persians. The Persians had been vassals of the Medes. Nabonidus asked for the help of Cyrus II against the Medes who were defeated in 550 B.C. and Cyrus became king of the

### THE ISHTAR GATE

The gates of Babylon were each named after gods. This gate of the goddess Ishtar was made of modelled bricks which were covered with thick coloured enamels. It was built at the entrance to the main street of the City, which at its fullest extent covered 1,060 acres and housed 200,000 people



Medes and Persians. After this victory Cyrus set out on a series of campaigns in which he captured the whole of Asia Minor, eastern Iran and part of India, setting up an empire some 3,000 miles across. This enormous empire towered over Babylon where Belsharusur was king (Belshazzar of the Old Testament). In 539 B.C. Cyrus attacked Babylon which he took easily, but he took care not to destroy it. Belsharusur was killed in battle but many Babylonians were content to live under their new ruler, for Cyrus tried to make his new subjects like him, and not fear him, by treating them mercifully and encouraging local customs. The Old Testament gives an account of his good treatment of Hebrew prisoners and how he returned them to Jerusalem.

During its short time New Babylon had become one of the wonders of the world. With a population of 100,000 it covered some 500 acres and contained over 1,000 temples. The walls were 10 miles long and more than 36 feet wide so that chariots could carry troops rapidly from place to place along the top of the wall. The inner wall had eight gates named after gods and one still stands to a height of 36 feet. The ziggurat was over 100 yards wide at its base and probably some 200 feet high. Nebuchadnezzar had built himself a palace



and this probably contained the roof gardens described as 'The Hanging Gardens of Babylon'. Both the temples and the palaces were decorated with all the gold, silver, precious stones, metals and woods which the might and riches of Babylon could obtain and the East provide. Although the trade of Babylon was declining as the Phoenecian trading cities (see pages 92-6) were losing trade to Greece, she developed two great helps to trade. One was the development of banking, and the other the fixing of a price of silver compared with gold. This varied from 10 to 14 ounces of silver being worth one ounce of gold.

In spite of these developments, civilization in Mesopotamia slowly began to weaken. Cyrus was succeeded by his son who added Egypt to the Persian Empire in 525 B.C. Darius established himself as emperor after a civil war in 520 B.C. and reigned until 485 B.C. He introduced schemes to make the huge empire into one country. A network of roads was built and regularly used by royal messengers who travelled to all of the 20 provinces into which the empire was divided. Each was ruled by a military governor, royal inspectors and tax collectors were appointed, and a canal dug from the Nile to the Red Sea. Thrace was captured in an attempt to conquer Greece but

The tomb of Darius







The Persian Empire

Persia was defeated by the Greeks at the battle of Marathon in 490 B.C. (see pages 114-5). A common system of law was imposed on the whole empire and a gold coinage brought in based on the *clarie* which was worth 20 shekels of silver.

Darius was in turn succeeded by his son Xerxes (485-465 B.C.) whose attempts to conquer Greece failed (see pages 112-3). These Greek campaigns so occupied Xerxes that he neglected Mesopotamia. Rebuilding became rare and without a 'local' ruler less care was taken of the temples, which had been the responsibility of the king. Even more important, less care was taken of the irrigation canals on which the country depended. Slowly civilization in Mesopotamia declined. Foreigners, worshipping strange gods, held the important positions and the wealth of the country went abroad as

A general view of the royal palace at Persepolis





Soldiers of the Persian infantry



Ruins of Persepolis, the 'royal' city of the Persians



Persian taxes. Only highly educated men and temple scribes could read the old cuneiform inscriptions. Most people spoke Aramaic, the language of the empire.

The Athenians carried on their war against Xerxes' successor Artaxerxes (465–424 B.C.) until peace was signed in 446 B.C., but the power of Persia began to decline. Civil war broke out, and in 400 B.C. 10,000 Greek mercenaries were able to fight their way to the Black Sea. About the same time Egypt became virtually independent. Although Artaxerxes III managed to restore some of the empire's strength, it was not enough to prevent Alexander the Great defeating his successor Darius III in six years (336–330 B.C.).

### *SUMMARY*

Babylon revolted against Assyria in 626 B.C. under Nabopolassar and 'New Babylon' reached its widest extent under his son Nebuchadnezzar.—New Babylon was taken by Cyrus the Persian in 539 B.C. by which time it had been built up into one of the great cities of the world.

The Persians under Cyrus, Darius I, Xerxes and Artaxerxes built up the greatest empire the world had known but were not able to conquer the Greeks, and were themselves defeated by Alexander the Great between 336 and 330 B.C.

Subjects carrying their tribute





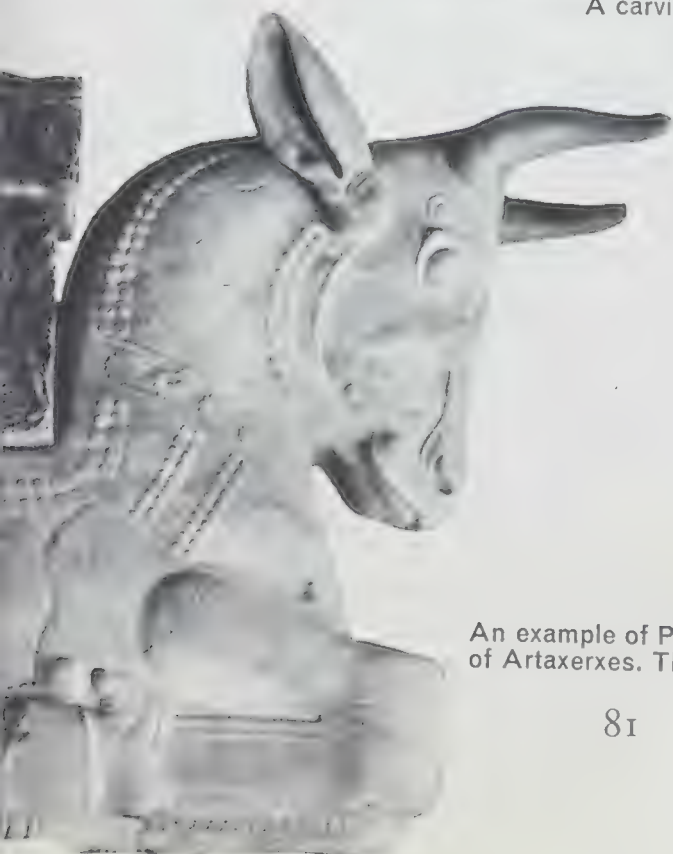
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D A R I U S

Example of cuneiform writing showing how the name of Darius was written



Servants of the great king Darius  
A carving on the steps of the royal palace



An example of Persian sculpture from the time  
of Artaxerxes. The bull was considered a royal beast

## Section 4: THE SEA EMPIRES

### CHAPTER 1: THE MINOANS OF CRETE AND THE MYCENAEANS OF GREECE

Crete is an island which lies in the Mediterranean 100 miles south of Greece. It is 150 miles long, the distance from London to Cardiff. Here civilization developed sometime after 6000 B.C. By 4000 B.C. bronze was in use and by the third millennium B.C. this culture which is called the Minoan civilization, after Minos, King of Crete, had spread to the mainland of Greece, where it was called the Early Helladic civilization.

Excavation of sites of this period shows a settled way of life and trade across the Aegean Sea. About 2000 B.C. the sites in Greece

Typical Cretan landscape showing ruins of the palace of Cnossus. Notice the jars, still intact, which contained wine, oil or grain







Interior of the palace of Knossos

were destroyed by a wave of migrating Indo-Europeans. These settled in Greece and took over the simple farming areas they found. They brought the Greek language with them, although they kept the older names for such places as Athens, Thebes and Corinth. Here they developed the Mycenaean civilization so called from a palace of this culture at Mycenaea.

In Crete the Minoan civilization continued to develop. Knowledge of this civilization has been built up from the excavation of such sites as Knossos in Crete and Mycenae on the mainland. These were the only real cities in Europe during the second millennium B.C. The houses had several floors with windows and inside courtyards. The kings had grand palaces, beautifully decorated, but no large temples although large areas of the palaces were used for religious ceremonies, probably under the direction of the king who was also the high priest. The Cretans worshipped goddesses and religious services were held on the tops of mountains and in sacred caves, while each house also had its own small altar. One of the strange ceremonies was bull-leaping, which is shown in some Cretan pictures. Young men and women seized the horns of bulls and vaulted over their backs.

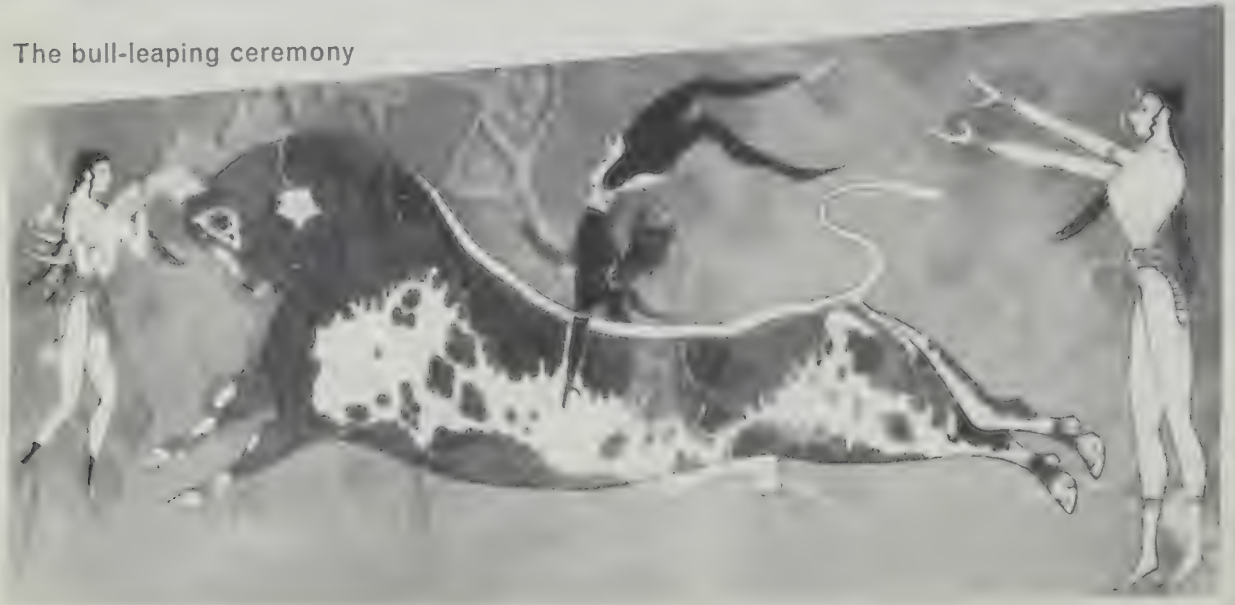


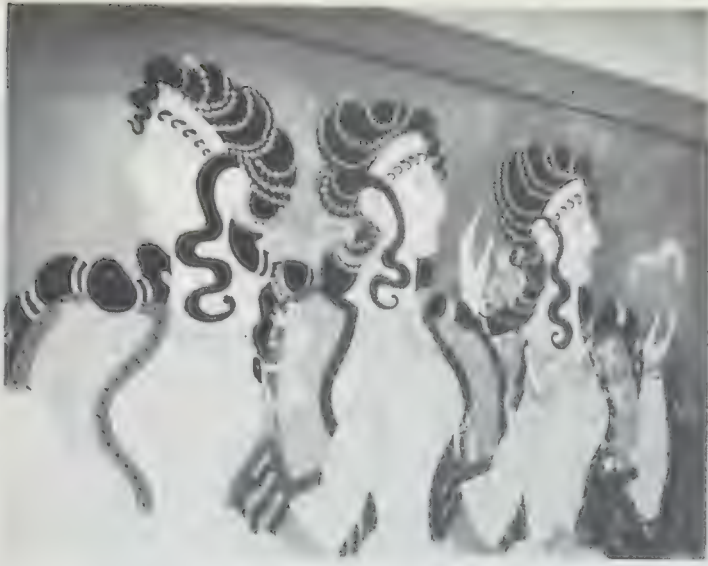


**Shops at Cnossus**

In a number of palaces which have been excavated there are large numbers of rooms grouped around central courtyards. The complicated plans of these palaces probably caused the later Greek legend of a labyrinth or maze. This was a place in which the passages were so complicated that once inside it was almost impossible to find the way out. The large rooms in the palaces were decorated

**The bull-leaping ceremony**





Ladies of the Minoan court

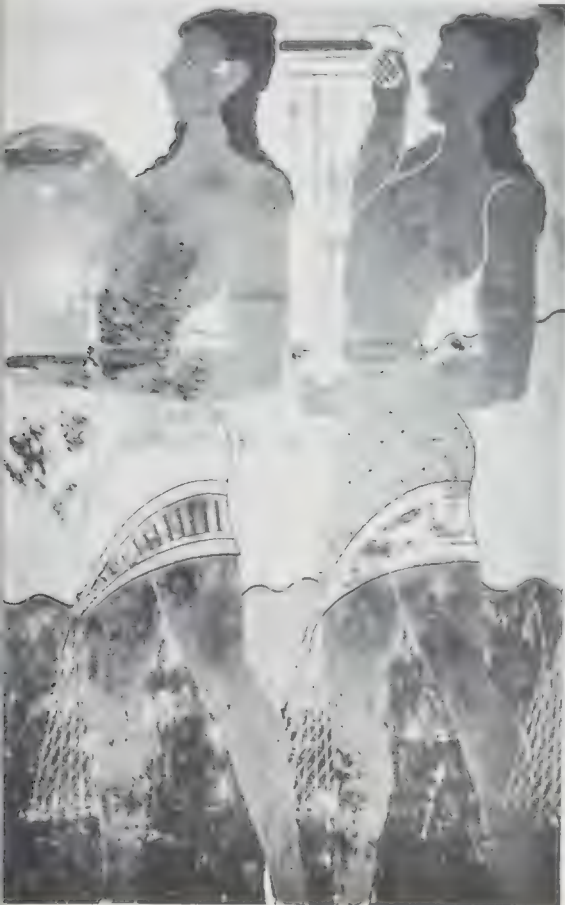


Minoan goddess

with wall paintings of plants and animals, all in gay colours. Unfortunately scholars are unable at the moment to read Minoan writing, which is known as Linear A.

The best Cretan pottery is very thin and often decorated with flowing curves. The Cretans were not a warlike people, soldiers

Slaves at the palace of Cnossus



Cretan vase showing typical Minoan decoration







Cretan trade routes

rarely appear in their pictures, but they were great traders. From 1600 B.C. onwards they traded all over the eastern Mediterranean. Slowly the Mycenaeans learnt from the traders the use of the potter's wheel and bronze weapons. They also learnt of the wealth and riches of the Minoans and in the fifteenth century B.C. they swept across the sea, invaded and sacked the island. The palace at Cnossos was burnt to the ground.



(left) Typical Minoan curved design  
(below) Charging bull. The bull was very important in Minoan religion and this is recorded by Homer in his legend of Theseus and the Minotaur, which probably originated from the sacking of Crete c. 1400 B.C.





The Mycenaeans however absorbed much of the Minoan civilization. Palaces with similar paintings or frescoes begin to appear in Greece itself at this time, and architectural columns similar to those at Cnossus were used.



Throne of king Minos of Cnossus

This is the early Greece, the legends of which were written down by the poet Homer in his *epics*, the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey'. These tell how the Greeks led by Agamemmon and Odysseus besieged the city of Troy for ten years. They finally took it through the trick of the wooden horse. In the 'Odyssey' the wanderings of the Greeks before they returned home are recounted. The poems of Homer describe a people who were both farmers and warriors, who used the art they



A goblet of gold





A gold mask, once thought to be that of Agamemnon



Remains of the palace at Mycenae. It is now thought that the Minoan civilization was destroyed by the volcanic eruption which "blew up" the 5,000 foot mountain on the island of Stronghyli some 70 miles north of Crete. The prevailing wind carried the volcanic debris away from Greece where the few Minoans who escaped developed the Mycenaean civilization. The final surgeback into the new crater could have caused the drying up of the "Reed" Sea (Sirbenis Lake) and the eruption of the Plagues of Egypt in the Old Testament. Minoan remains have been found under 100 feet of volcanic debris on Thira, one of the islands of Santorini. These islands are now all that remain after the eruption which created the legend of "Atlantis."

(p. 89 top) The Lion Gate, only entrance to the palace and fortress of Mycenae

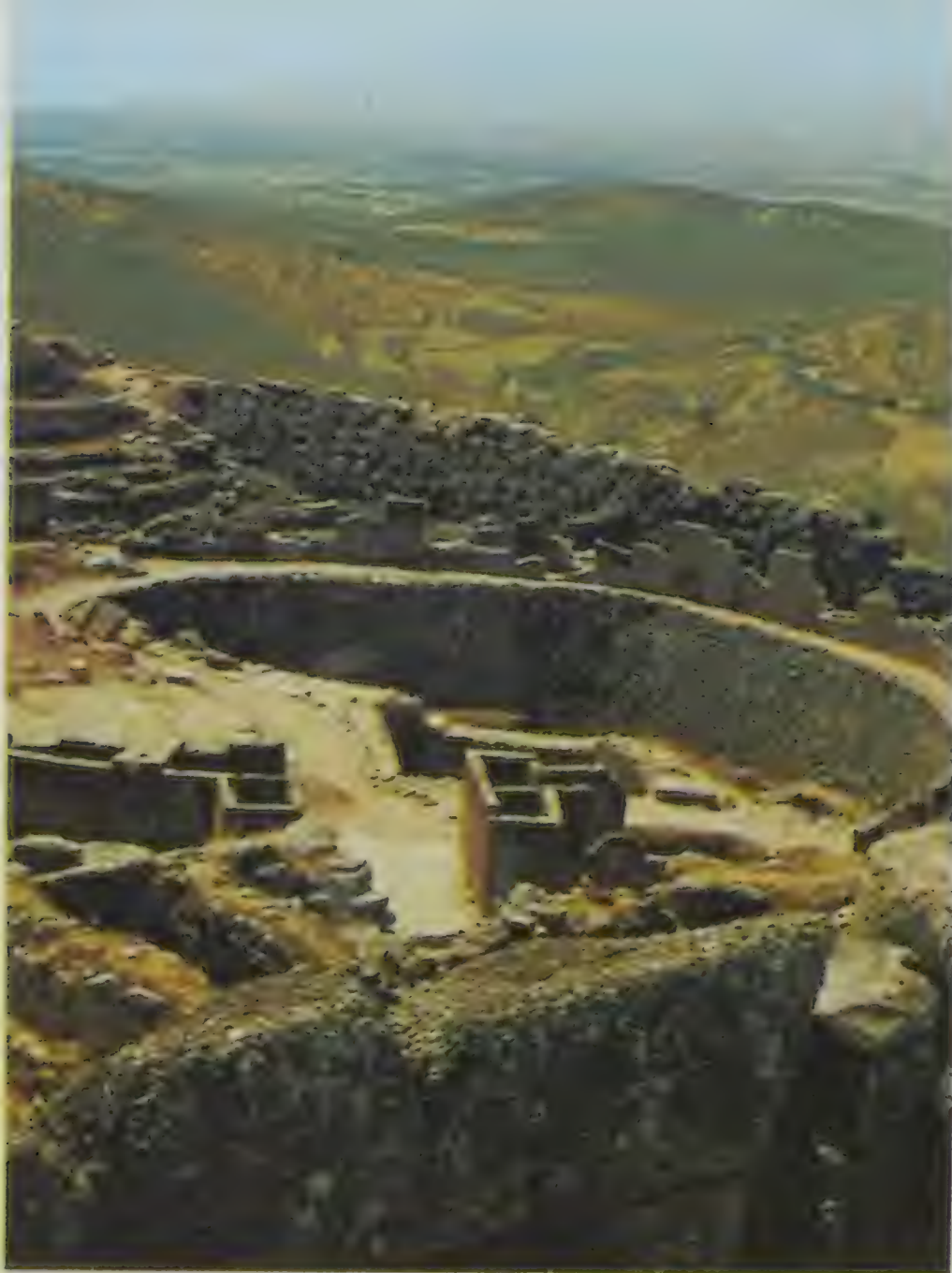
(p. 89 bottom) Windows in the walls at Tirynthe







Tomb of  
Agamemnon



Greek fortifications  
at Argos

had learnt from the Minoans, were eloquent and brave, and who had deep feelings for their families and country. Homer's description came from legends probably in the ninth century B.C., over 300 years after the Mycenaeans had disappeared, having been conquered by a new invading Indo-European race, the Dorians, with their new iron weapons (see map below). These invaders destroyed Mycenaea and its palaces soon after 1200 B.C., and the art of writing of the Mycenaeans, Linear B, an early form of Greek, declined.

The Mycenaeans, like the Minoans, were great traders over the whole eastern Mediterranean and penetrated into Italy and up the river Danube in search of copper, tin and amber.

### SUMMARY

Civilization developed in Crete after 6000 B.C. and spread to Greece during the third millennium B.C.—About 2000 B.C. Greece was invaded but the Minoan civilization continued to develop in Crete.—The Minoans were traders and highly artistic and their culture again spread to the mainland where it influenced the Mycenaean culture.—About 1400 B.C. the Mycenaeans sacked the palace at Cnossus and the city of Troy, the details of which are recorded in the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey'. Around 1200 B.C. the Mycenaeans were themselves overrun by the Indo-European Dorians.

Migrations 1200–900 B.C.



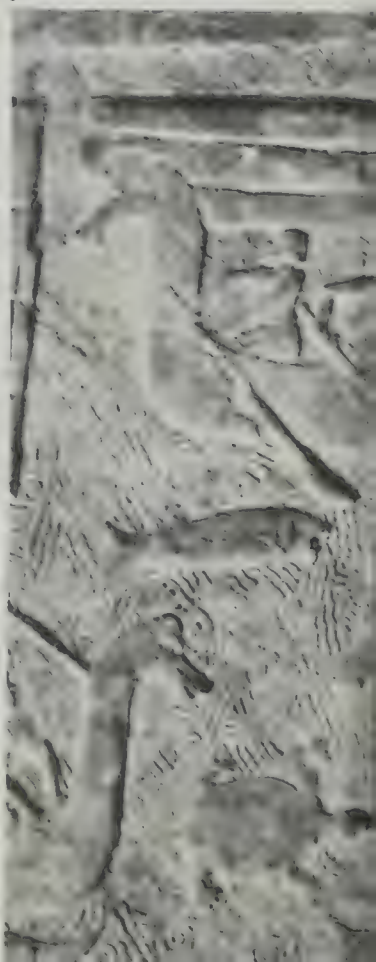


## CHAPTER 2: THE PHOENICIANS AND CARTHAGE

The people who lived on the east coast of the Mediterranean were at the cross-roads of the Near East. Across the Mediterranean lay the islands of Crete, Greece and Cyprus. At the same time the ancient trade routes from Mesopotamia passed close to the coast (see pages 26–7). The cities of this coast therefore became great trading centres. Their people were called Phoenicians, and were referred to as Sidonians in Homer's epics and in the Old Testament.

The oldest of these trading cities was Byblos which was trading with Egypt as early as the third millennium B.C., the time of the Old Kingdom. The trade of Byblos was based on wood, particularly Lebanonese cedar which was used to make boats. The vessels carried wood to Egypt and returned with papyrus. Byblos used this papyrus to become a centre of learning. It is from this city that the Greek word for book (biblia) and the English 'Bible' have come. Byblos however became part of the Egyptian Empire. About 1500 B.C. Pharaoh Thutmose III conquered most of Phoenicia and for 200 years the Phoenician coast suffered as the battleground between Egypt and the Hittites. By 1300 B.C. the Mycenaeans had established themselves at Ugarit in the north. It was in this city that a cuneiform

Excavation at Byblos







Sarcophagus (ornamental stone coffin) of a king of Byblos c. 1200 B.C. This is very similar to those in use in Egypt, and shows the spread of Egyptian influence

Phoenician wood traders

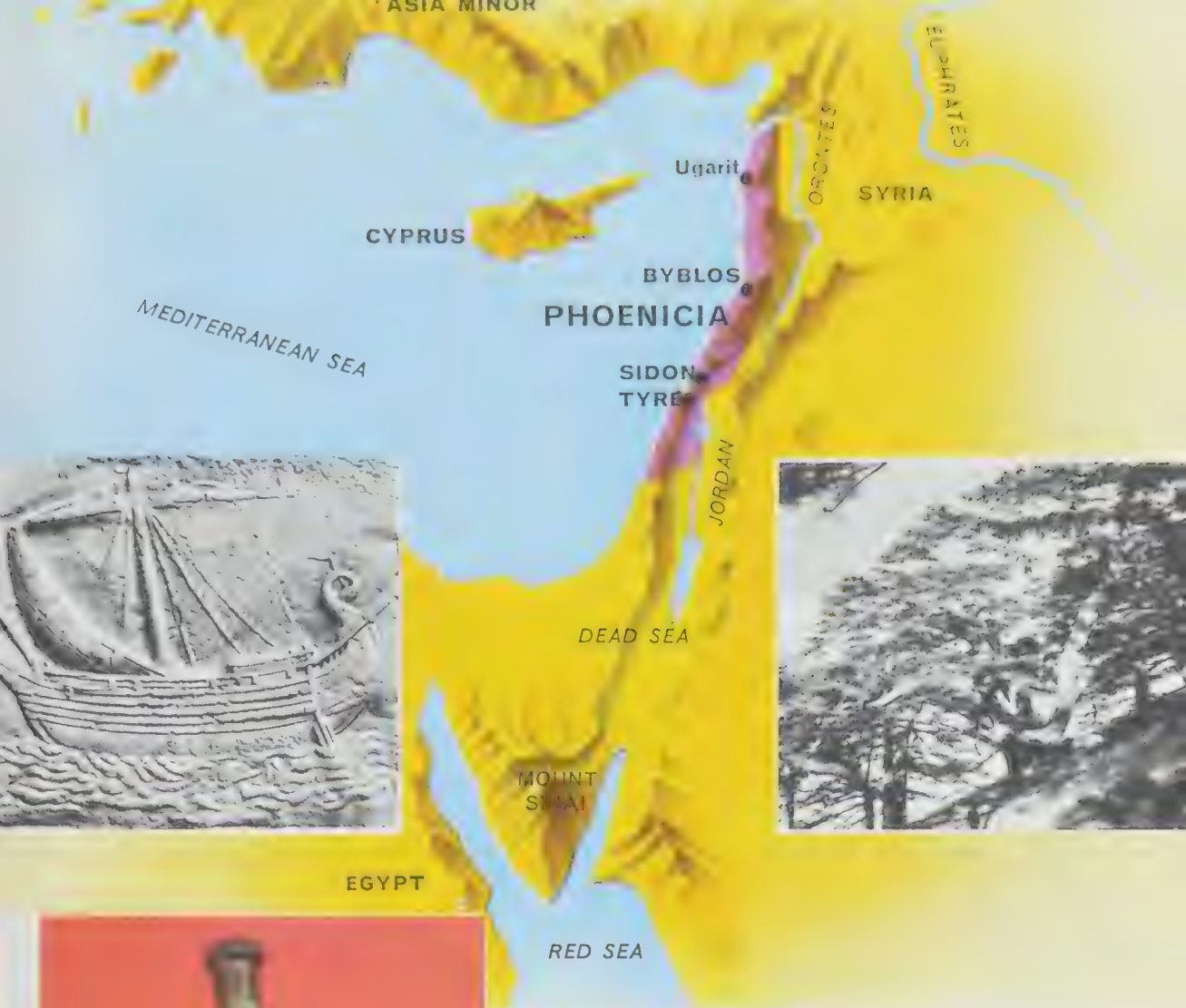




The site of Byblos. (*inset*) Phoenician glassware. (*below*) Phoenician trade







(inset) The cedars of Lebanon, used for building ships



Bronze statue of the goddess Astarte of Byblos



Phoenician vase



alphabet of 29 letters was in use in the fourteenth century B.C., while another alphabet was in use at Byblos. It is the Phoenician alphabet of Byblos, which had 22 consonants but no vowels, from which the modern alphabets have been derived.

During the great migrations 1200–1000 B.C. the city of Ugarit was destroyed, never to be rebuilt. However, these invasions also destroyed the power of the Mycenaeans who had controlled the eastern Mediterranean. This enabled the cities of Phoenicia to become flourishing independent trading cities, but they became increasingly dominated by the city of Tyre which in the early ninth century B.C. also ruled over part of Cyprus. Pygmalion, king of Tyre, was reputed to have founded Carthage in 814 B.C.

The cities of Phoenicia paid tribute to Assyria. They also helped the enemies of Assyria from time to time, but as their trade was very valuable to the Assyrians they let them live in peace, although Esarhaddon, king of Assyria, destroyed Sidon in 675 B.C.

After the fall of Assyria Phoenicia was independent until it was conquered in 586 B.C. by Nebuchadnezzar. Tyre resisted a siege for 13 years (585–573 B.C.) and was the only city not captured. From 538 B.C. Phoenicia was divided into four kingdoms under the Persian Empire, Sidon, Tyre, Arwad and Byblos. This ended in 332 B.C. when Alexander the Great took Tyre and the other Phoenician cities submitted to him. In A.D. 64 these cities were included by Pompey in his Roman province of Syria.

Throughout the first millennium B.C. the cities continued to be great trading centres. Phoenicia itself produced not only wood but also wine and oil, while its craftsmen made glass and beautiful clothes, often dyed with the famous Tyrian purple, and they were masters of wood and metal work. With these goods they traded all over the known world.

Each city had its own god or baal, such as Melquart of Tyre. Others were 'shared' between two or more cities such as the goddess Astarte of Byblos and Sidon, who became the Aphrodite of the Greeks. Similarly Adon of Byblos became the Greek Adonis. The supreme god, the creator, was El, whose children were Sepesh, the sun-goddess, and Ashera, goddess of the sea.

In the west of the North African coast (near the present-day city of Tunis) the 'New City' of Carthage flourished. Its language 'Punic' was a Phoenician dialect, and its god became Dido, a sister

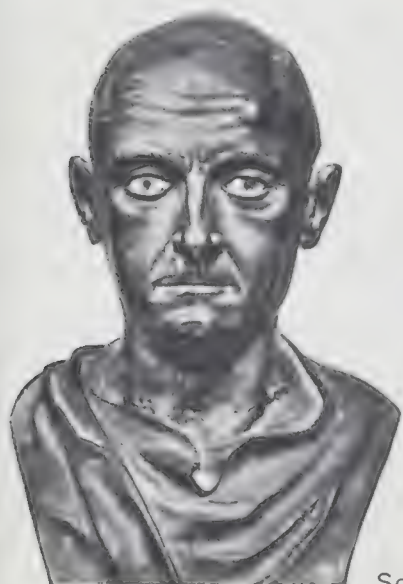
of Pygmalion, who, according to legend, had founded the city.

During the sixth century B.C. in a series of wars Carthage conquered lands in Africa, Sicily and Sardinia. During the fifth century B.C. Carthage developed her sea power and gained control of the whole of the western Mediterranean as far as the Straits of Gibraltar. The trade of Carthage also developed and she became a very rich city. To the east a series of wars were fought against the city of Syracuse for control of the island of Sicily.

The expanding city of Carthage then came into conflict with the other expanding city of the western Mediterranean, Rome. Two great wars resulted, the First Punic War (268–241 B.C.) and the Second Punic War (219–202 B.C.).

The First Punic War broke out when defenders of a city in Sicily sent for help, some to Carthage and some to Rome. Both sent forces which on arrival turned and fought each other. Both sides had victories and defeats. However, the Romans developed a fleet for the first time and in 241 B.C. annihilated a Carthaginian fleet off the Aegates Island near western Sicily and Carthage signed a peace, surrendering Sicily to Rome and paying a tribute of 3,200 talents.

Both cities continued to expand. In 238 B.C. Rome seized Sardinia, and eleven years later joined with Corsica to form a new province. At the same time Carthage under Hamilcar (236–228 B.C.) and his son-in-law Has-drubal conquered Spain. On his death Has-drubal was succeeded by Hannibal who in 218 B.C. marched his army of 26,000 men and some 30 elephants from Spain across the



Scipio

Hannibal





The First Punic War

Plan of Carthage



Carthage





## The Second Punic War

Plate showing the war elephants of Hannibal



Alps into northern Italy. Here he defeated two Roman armies and marched south.

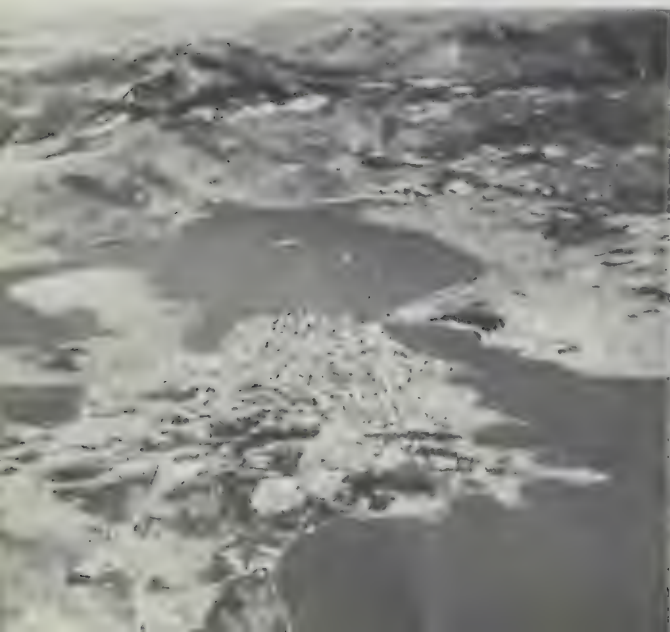
The Romans appointed Quintus Fabius Maximus as dictator and he tried to reduce the strength of the Carthaginian army, which was far from home and reinforcements, by harrying it but not giving battle. This earned him the title of 'the delayer' but he was not popular with the Romans who saw Hannibal pillaging Italy. In 216 B.C. the consul Varro with 86,000 men attacked Hannibal at Cannae, but the Romans were annihilated.

Hannibal continued to ravage Italy and in 211 B.C. reached within one mile of Rome, but was unable to take it. A Roman army under Publius Cornelius Scipio was sent first to Spain (209 B.C.) and then to attack Carthage itself (204 B.C.). Hannibal was forced to return to Africa but Scipio annihilated his army at Zama in 202 B.C. Carthage was forced to accept peace on Roman terms. She surrendered Spain and all islands in the Mediterranean and was to pay 200 talents a year for 50 years, and destroy all her warships except for 10. The Romans gave Scipio the title 'Africanus' to celebrate his triumph.

Again Carthage slowly revived and in 150 B.C. attacked an ally of Rome. As a result the Romans besieged and destroyed Carthage in the Third Punic War 149–146 B.C.

### *SUMMARY*

The Phoenicians were a people who lived on the East Mediterranean coast in great trading cities such as Byblos and Tyre.—They invented the Byblos alphabet and traded all over the known world.—In 814 B.C. Carthage was founded from Tyre.—It grew and controlled the western Mediterranean until defeated by Rome in the Punic Wars.



The Greek coastline



Northern Greece, a plain near Thebes



## CHAPTER 3: ATHENS AND THE CITY-STATE

Greece is a small country, smaller than England or Florida, and is so mountainous that it has a comparatively small population. The mountains make travelling so difficult between one part of the country and another that it has never been easy for one ruler to control the whole country. The Greeks looked upon the sea not as an obstacle but as an easy way to travel from one place to another, so avoiding the mountains, and also to reach the many islands off the coast, and they became expert sailors.

About 1200 B.C. the Mycenaeans (see page 86) were overwhelmed and their civilization destroyed by the Dorians who brought the first iron weapons into Greece. From 1200 to 750 B.C. very little is known of what happened in Greece. Only in a few places, particularly around the small town of Athens, was a little of the Mycenaean culture left. Athens managed to hold out because it was based on an inaccessible fortress called the Acropolis.

Many Mycenaeans fled to Athens and its fortress, which was soon overcrowded. About 1100 B.C. small groups began to leave Athens and settle on islands and coasts of the Aegean Sea. It was these small colonies that remembered the glories of Mycenaea and told their children the stories of its heroes, who probably lived on the isle of Chios or at Smyrna, which Homer eventually wrote down (see page 87). It is on these stories that the Greeks based much of their later history, philosophy, drama and science. Homer's writings also mark the other great event at the end of the Greek Dark Ages, the appearance of the Greek alphabet (see page 20) during the eighth century B.C.

Greece itself split up into a number of cities, each of which was surrounded by its own villages and farms, defended by the soldiers in the city. In time these became city-states and the commanders of the armies became kings who claimed to be appointed by the gods, but did not claim to be gods themselves. Athens was one of the two most famous city-states and Sparta, founded by the Dorians, the other.

Slowly trade made the city-states more powerful, and the government passed from the kings to a group of important wealthy men called aristocrats. The aristocrats at first were descendants of





The Acropolis seen from Pnyx Hill

Inland Greece. The Peloponnese





Cape Sounion, to the east of Athens

The Temple of Paestum in Greater Greece (the important Greek colony in Italy)





soldiers who had been given estates by their leaders. Later, rich merchants who had bought estates were also included. These aristocrats were rich enough not to have to work with their hands to earn a living but were trained as soldiers. Their education included art and music and they were expected to be truthful, trustworthy, courteous, courageous, generous and considerate towards other people. The aristocrats developed the art of governing the city-state which in Greek was called the 'polis' and it is from this word that the English word for the art of government, 'politics', has come.

As the populations of Greece increased the small area of fertile land could not produce enough olive oil, goat-cheese, wine, bread, sheep, goats, beans, peas, cabbage, lettuce, lentils and garlic to feed the people. People therefore went abroad and set up colonies overseas. This reduced the number of people in Greece and at the same time the colonists sent back goods which could not be made in Greece.

Painting, sculpture and pottery also developed. Men and animals were carefully drawn and used as decoration. Pottery was improved with these new designs.

In the seventh century B.C. sculpture began to develop. The first life-size figures are very similar to those of Egypt. As time went on

The olive tree, gift of the goddess Athene to the Athenians. (*top right*) A Tetradrachma, an Athenian coin. (*bottom right*) Treading grapes





these statues were made more and more lifelike until the most perfect 'classical' statues were carved. This skill in carving was also used in buildings and temples.

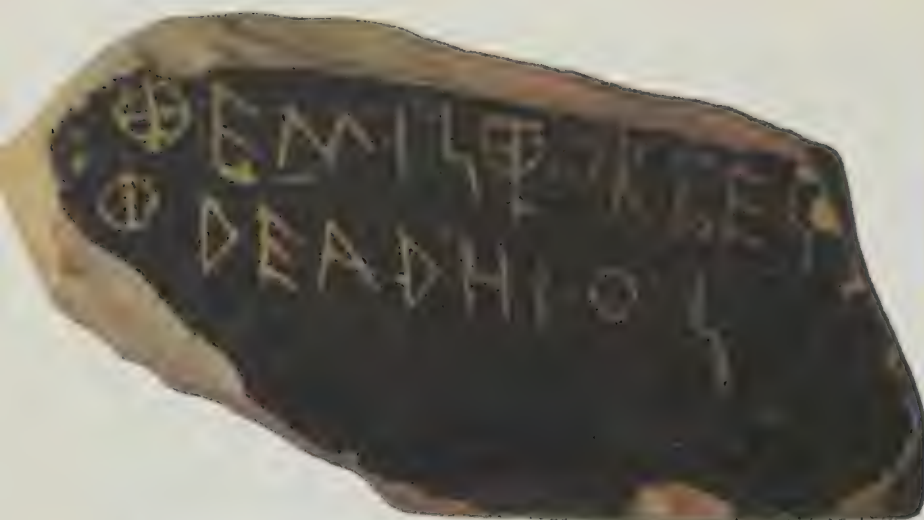
The aristocracy which governed Greece were not only lovers of art but were also great thinkers. The mathematician Pythagoras lived at this time.

Although the aristocrats were able to lead this life of thought and culture, the peasants and slaves were forced to live a very hard life; the government of the city-states was often upset by struggles between the people and the aristocracy and this sometimes enabled one man to seize power for a time. These men were called tyrants and they often made the life of the poor slightly easier for a time to win their support.

In 510 B.C. Athens expelled such a tyrant and three years later a new system of government was introduced. For the first time all adult male citizens were made members of the assembly in which the affairs of the city were discussed. To prevent another tyrant becoming powerful, a new law was passed. Anyone could be banished for ten years by a vote. Votes were cast by scratching a name on a potsherd and putting it in the voting urn. These sherds were

An Athenian merchant. The figure on the left holds a wine jug while under the table is a storage jar or amphora





An ostracon with the name Themistocles scratched on it

Greek Colonies



Ruins of Delos



Southern Greece. Cape Sounion





### The Temples of Sicily

called 'ostraka' and the English word ostracize comes from this. 'Ostracize' now means to refuse to have anything to do with a person.

Before this new system of government was fully developed, however, Athens had to face the might of the Persian Empire.

### *SUMMARY*

The Greeks used the sea as a road, and became expert sailors. The Dorian invasion caused a 'Dark Age'.—Only the city-state of Athens was able to keep some of the Mycenaean civilization.—The rival city of Sparta was founded by the Dorians.—Greece became overcrowded and so established colonies around the Aegean after 1100 B.C. Athens was governed by an aristocracy who encouraged a good way of living and the arts of painting, sculpture and pottery, together with philosophy and mathematics.—In 510 B.C. the people were given a much greater share in the government.



Spearmen, drawn as decoration to the base of a cup

A krater, a vessel with a wide mouth for mixing wine and water, the normal drink of the Greeks. The decoration shows an aristocrat leaving for war







A Greek soldier—a citizen



A Persian archer—a mercenary. Drawing on glazed tiles at Susa



A Greek helmet



## CHAPTER 4: THE PERSIAN WARS AND THE AGE OF PERICLES

By 500 B.C. the Persians had conquered all of the Greek colonies of the coast of Asia Minor. After a revolt in 499 B.C. the Persians sacked and burnt the important city of Miletus and Darius decided to add Greece to his empire (see pages 77–8). In 492 B.C. a Persian

force conquered Thrace but was forced to return when many of its ships were wrecked while sailing round Mount Athos. Athens and Sparta refused to surrender to Darius and so in 490 B.C. a large army was sent in 600 ships to Marathon with an army to march on Athens. Immediately Miltiades, the Athenian general, marched to Marathon before the Persians could lay waste the countryside and to prevent any traitors from helping the Persians. The Athenian army covered the last mile to the Persians at a run and its furious attack drove the Persians back to their ships. The Greeks claimed to have killed 6,400 men and to have lost only 192 themselves. A runner ran the 22 miles back to Athens with the news of the victory so quickly that he collapsed and died after he had gasped out the message. The Persians found Miltiades in so strong a position that they were unable to attempt another landing near Cape Sounion. They were forced to sail home, while the Greeks gave thanks to their gods.

Xerxes, Darius' son, was determined to avenge this defeat when he succeeded his father. He made careful preparations, even having a canal dug to avoid the dangers of sailing round Mount Athos. Meanwhile the Greeks, under Themistocles, the leader of the ordinary citizens in the assembly, built up their fleet. The Greek states met and agreed that the warlike city of Sparta should lead its forces. In 480 B.C. Xerxes crossed the Hellespont by two bridges, each a mile and a quarter long, made up of over 300 50-oared galleys anchored together. The army of some 200,000 men and a fleet of some 750 warships began a slow advance towards Athens.

Leonidas, king of Sparta, commanded some 7,000 Greeks with which he decided to hold the pass of Thermopylae, at that time a 50-foot wide pass between the mountains and the sea. For two days



Trireme. A war galley of the type used at Salamis

the Persians attacked the pass unsuccessfully. Then a Greek traitor showed them a way round over the mountains to attack the Greeks from the rear. Leonidas heard of this in time to order most of his army to retreat while he and his 300 Spartans held the pass where they fought until every one of them was killed. The Greek army retired to defend the isthmus of Corinth and Athens was evacuated by sea to the island of Salamis. The Persians occupied and sacked Athens.

Themistocles lured the Persian fleet to attack him in the narrow straits by sending a trusted slave to the Persians. The slave pretended to be a traitor and told Xerxes that the Greeks were planning to sail away. The Persians attacked in the narrow waters and lost the advantage of their numbers. The Athenian ships which were smaller, easier to manoeuvre, and fitted with rams, had a great advantage. Xerxes, watching from a throne specially built on a hillside, saw his fleet defeated and forced to retreat.

After this defeat Xerxes went home with most of his army. The following year the Greeks defeated the force he left behind at Plataea and the remainder of the Persian fleet was destroyed at Mycale.

Having defeated the Persian Empire, Greece entered a 'Golden Age' which is named after Pericles who dominated the city from 460-429 B.C. Pericles was a great orator or public speaker and he had a great influence on the assembly which met almost once a week. Day-to-day affairs were dealt with by a council of 500 which was chosen by lot from citizens over 30 years old. In this way all the people (except the slaves and women) had a say in how the city was governed. This type of government was called democracy from the Greek *demos* - the people. At the time Athens was a city of some 150,000 people and had two main centres. The centre of trading and government was the Agora (market-place), the place where the assembly met was Pnyx Hill and the religious centre was the Acropolis on its rocky hill.

### SUMMARY

The Persian army sent by Darius to conquer Greece was defeated in 490 B.C. at Marathon by the Athenian army under Miltiades. —Darius' son, Xerxes, invaded and, helped by treachery, overwhelmed the 300 Spartans of Leonidas at Thermopylae and sacked Athens, but the Persian fleet was defeated at



Salamis. Xerxes left Greece.—The army he left behind was destroyed at Plataea and the remains of his fleet at Mycale in 479 B.C.—Athens, now a democracy, was rebuilt under the leadership of Pericles who encouraged the rebuilding of the Acropolis.

The Persian War  
BLACK SEA



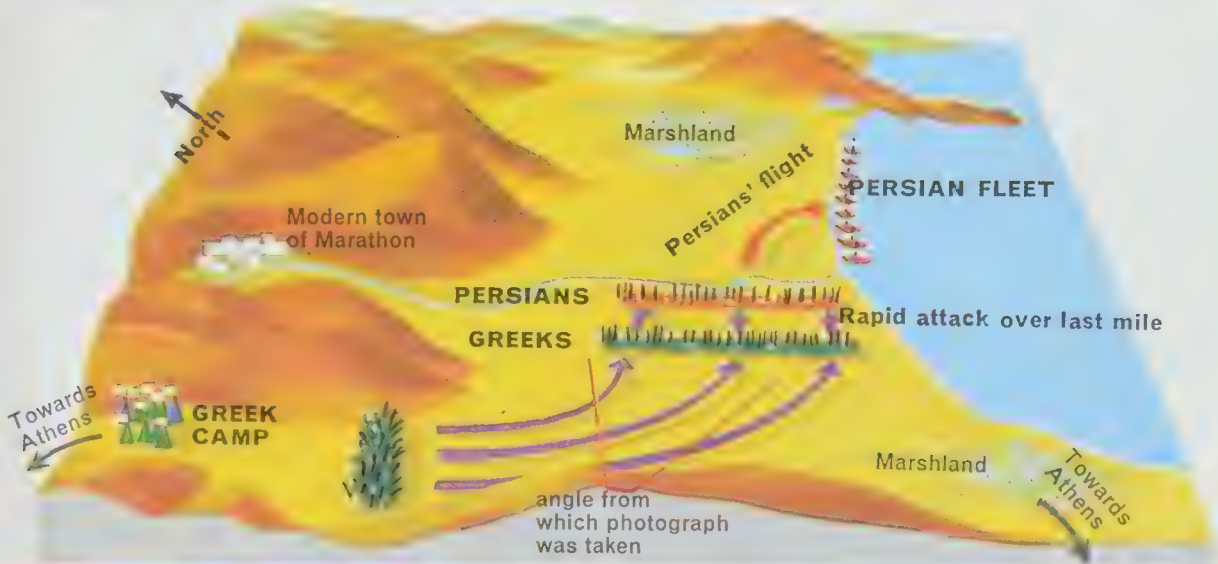
The following description of part of the Battle of Salamis is taken from Plutarch's 'Life of Themistocles'. Plutarch lived during the first century A.D. and it was a translation of his work which Shakespeare used for his information on Greece and Rome.

"It seems that Themistocles chose the time and place for the battle carefully. He was careful not to let the Trireme attack the barbarian ships head on until that time in the day when the wind usually blows fresh from the sea and sends large rollers through the narrow straits. This breeze was no disadvantage to the Greek ships which were comparatively small and low in the water, but the wind caught the Persian boats which were very difficult to manoeuvre with their high decks and towering sterns. They were swung round broadside to their enemies who dashed in eagerly for the attack. The Greek commanders kept a careful eye on Themistocles because they felt that he saw most clearly what were the right tactics to follow and also because he had positioned himself opposite Xerxes' admiral Ariamenes, a very courageous man who was one of the king's brothers. He was positioned upon a huge ship from which he kept firing arrows and javelins as though he was on the walls of a fortress. A Greek ship bore down on his and the two ships crashed into one another and they were held by their bronze rams. Ariamenes tried to board the Greek Trireme but the Athenians ran him through with their spears and threw his body into the sea. It was later recognized as it floated about with the wreckage and brought to Xerxes."





Plain and site  
of Marathon



The Battle of Salamis





Pericles



Reconstruction of the statue of Athene



A young Spartan athlete



## CHAPTER 5: THE PELOPONNESIAN WARS AND THE RISE OF MACEDON

The success of Athens as a trading nation and the build-up of her empire led her into rivalry with Sparta. This city was organized like a military camp: from the age of 7 boys were trained to be soldiers and endure hardship and discipline; those who were thought to be too weak to become soldiers were left to die on the mountains. Men ate together in a 'mess' and were not allowed to live with their wives or own a house until they were 30 years old. Even their children belonged to the city.

The Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta broke out in 431 B.C. The events are well known because one of the soldiers Thucydides was also an historian and kept careful notes of what happened and wrote of them in a book called 'The Peloponnesian War'.

Athens had her fleet and her wealth, but in the long run she was no match for the Spartan army. Both sides had victories and defeats, but in April 404 B.C. Athens, faced with starvation after her fleet had been defeated, surrendered. She lost all her foreign possessions as well as the remains of her fleet and pledged herself to become an ally of Sparta.

All through the hunger, plagues and losses of the war the Athenians did not lose their love of the Arts and the theatre. The little temple to Athene and the Erechtheum (see page 119) were built at this time. Sophocles wrote 'Oedipus Rex', his greatest tragedy, during an attack of the plague (probably typhus); Euripides wrote 15 plays, and Aristophanes wrote comedies. The actors used masks to help show what kinds of persons they were playing. The theatre meant much more to the Athenians than going to a play or watching television means to us. Going to the theatre was an important public occasion, and it has been said that it was through the plays that the Athenians had their education. During drama festivals business in Athens stopped and prisoners were released from jail.

Sparta's control of Greece after the defeat of Athens did not last for long. She was unable to govern the cities she had won. Revolts broke out, and in 371 B.C. she was defeated by an army from the city of Thebes.



The Propylaea, the great gateway to the Acropolis

Plan of the Acropolis as rebuilt by Pericles after the Persian war



Meeting place of the Assembly on Pnyx Hill



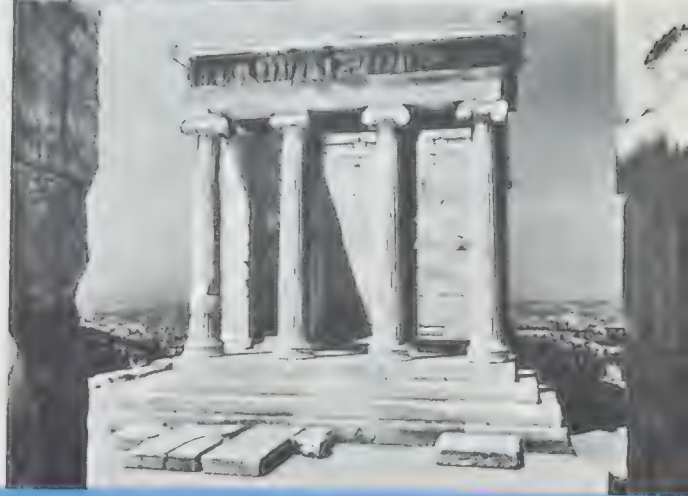




*(top)* Erechtheum, showing the Porch of the Maidens

*(right)* Temple of Athene (Style Ionic)

*(below)* The Parthenon, built in the Doric style and finished in 432 B.C.

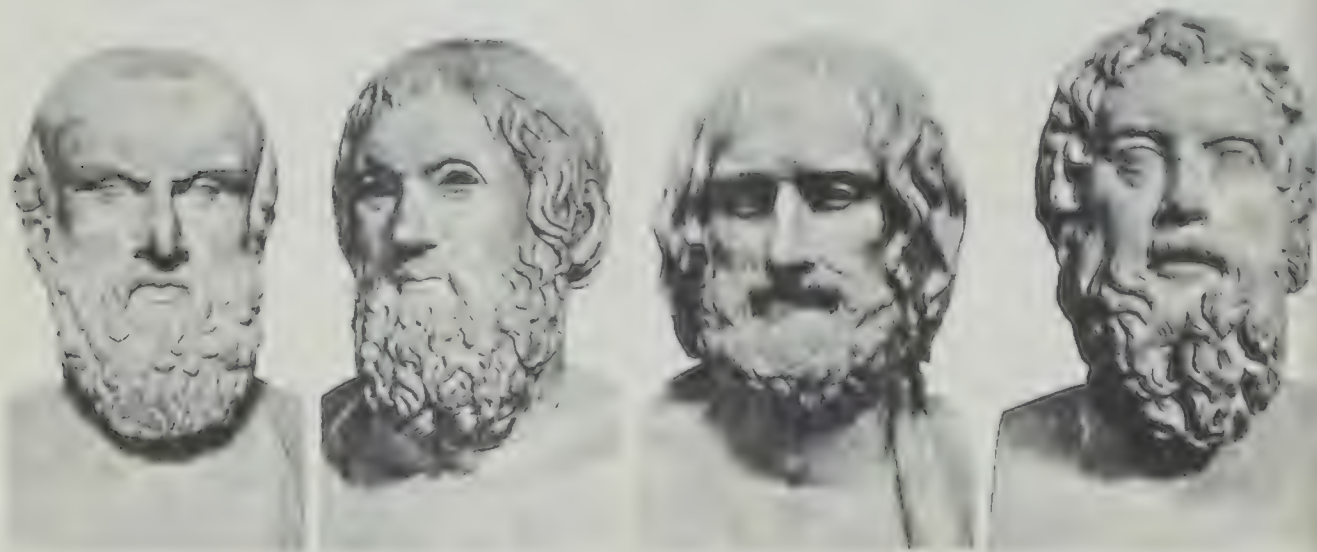




Meanwhile Athens slowly recovered: new ideas were being put forward which were often not accepted at first. In 399 B.C. one great thinker, Socrates, was forced to carry out his own execution by drinking poison because his teaching was said to give ideas to the young. He did away with all pretences and said that people should understand themselves ('Know thyself'). The 'spirit' inside people would tell them what they should or should not do. His pupil Plato was later able to start a school which became known as the Academy, where he taught until he died in 347 B.C. Both Socrates and Plato wanted to make rightness or 'justice' the way in which the state was governed. Plato wrote down the thoughts they had developed in the books 'The Dialogues', 'The Republic' and 'The Laws', which gave the idea of a 'Philosopher King' who should rule the state, having been very carefully selected and trained for the job. One of Plato's pupils was Aristotle although he did not agree with all his master taught. Aristotle was one of the first scientists. He carefully collected information and then tried to produce theories to explain them. He did this first with plants and animals, and then studied human behaviour in the same way in his book 'Ethics'. It is from the writings of Plato and Aristotle that the later European thinkers have developed their work.

While Aristotle and Plato were thinking about government, a new state was growing to the north. In 359 B.C. Philip II became king of Macedon and he became determined to conquer Greece. He first conquered Thrace and the gold mines there provided him with

Great Greek playwrights



Aeschylus  
527-451 B.C.

'Agamemnon'  
'Choephoroi'  
'Eumenides'

Sophocles  
495-405 B.C.

'Oedipus Rex'

Euripides  
480-406 B.C.

'The Trojan Women'  
'Heracles'  
'Electra'

Aristophanes  
445-385 B.C.

'The Acharians'  
'The Birds'  
'The Frogs'



Young riders in the procession held every four years in honour of Athene

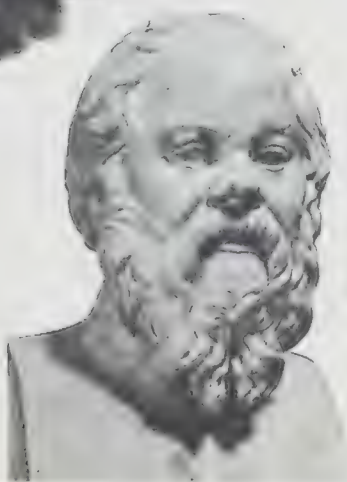


A theatre mask

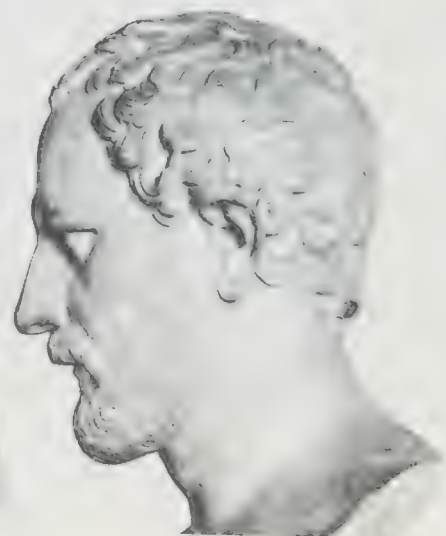
Philip II  
king of Macedon



Demosthenes



Socrates







The site of the city of Sparta



Theatre of Dionysos, built along the foot of the Acropolis

1,000 talents of gold each year (£3 million sterling). He used the money to build up an army and trained it to fight in a new way. The army was divided into sections of 256 men, 16 rows of 16 men. Each was armed with a spear some 14 to 20 feet long and the Greek round shield.

In battle the front 5 rows levelled their spears while the 11 rows behind rested theirs on the shoulders of the men in front and these 176 spears were a protection against arrows. These sections could join together to form larger groups and the formation was called the phalanx.

Athens, although repeatedly warned by Demosthenes, her greatest orator, took little notice of Macedon. But by 352 B.C. Philip had conquered as far as Thermopylae and in 338 B.C. he defeated the combined forces of Athens and Thebes. Two years later he was murdered and was succeeded by his son Alexander, then 20 years old.

### *SUMMARY*

The Peloponnesian War between Athens with her successful trade and fleet, and Sparta with her well-trained army, was caused by rivalry and broke out in 431 B.C. It was carefully recorded by the historian Thucydides. — Athens was finally defeated in 404 B.C. but during the war the Athenian theatre flourished with such playwrights as Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes.

Sparta was defeated by Thebes in 371 B.C., while Athens slowly recovered. The great thinkers Socrates, Plato, 'The Dialogues', 'The Republic' and 'The Laws' and Aristotle, 'The Ethics' developed their ideas. To the north Macedon was becoming a powerful country. A new method of fighting, the phalanx, was developed by Philip II of Macedon who used it to conquer most of Greece before he was murdered in 336 B.C. — He was succeeded by his son Alexander.





Olive trees

Olives, and the oil which was obtained from them, were one of the few valuable crops which could be grown in Greece

Young Spartans



## CHAPTER 6: ALEXANDER THE GREAT

Philip II of Macedon had been successful in uniting the cities of Greece (except Sparta) in the League of Corinth. He had allowed them to govern themselves and did not ask for any tribute; he only insisted that they did not fight one another.

Alexander planned to unite the whole of the world known by him under his rule in a similar way, but he did not use the careful, cautious methods of his father. He was a man of action and courage who took decisions and great risks. Alexander, who had been a pupil of Aristotle, took scientists with him on his military campaigns. He also had a great love for Greek art and poetry.

In a year Alexander extended Macedon as far north as the river Danube. In 335 B.C. he crushed a rebellion in Thebes, killed or sold into slavery its people, and destroyed all of the city except its temples and the home in which Pindar, the poet, had once lived. Immediately all the other Greek cities, except Sparta, became his allies.

To the east of Greece there lay the great Persian Empire. Although the Persian attacks on Greece 150 years earlier had been defeated, there was still the threat that a strong Persian king might try again to conquer Greece.

Encouraged by the fact that the Persians had been unable to prevent a Greek army of 10,000 marching through Persia (see page 80), Alexander crossed the Hellespont in 334 B.C. and invaded the Persian Empire. The Persian army met him at the river Granicus but was defeated and Alexander was able to send 300 suits of Persian armour back to the city of Athens. Having tasted success Alexander decided not only to destroy the Persian army, but to conquer the whole empire.

Alexander advanced further into Persia. Darius met him in 331 B.C. in two great battles, Issus and Gaugamela. Each time Darius had to flee from the battlefield. The advance continued to Babylon, Susa and finally to the capital of the empire, Persepolis. Here the booty Alexander captured was so great that 20,000 mules and 5,000 camels were needed to carry it. Alexander then marched north in pursuit of Darius, who was killed by his own men. Alexander became the official 'Great King of Persia'.

To keep his great empire together, Alexander did not interfere

with local customs and he treated Greeks and Persians as equals. This the Greeks, who thought themselves superior to the 'barbarians', regarded as an insult. Nevertheless Alexander was such a great leader that no one disobeyed him. He marched on into India, part of which had once belonged to the Persian Empire, and defeated the large, well-trained army of the Indian king, in what proved to be the most difficult battle of his life. The horse Alexander had ridden since he had been 12, Bucephalus, was killed in this battle, and on the battle site Alexander founded a city which he named Bucephala in its honour.

Alexander planned to march further into India but his weary army refused to go further into the unknown lands which they thought were the ends of the earth. So he was forced to turn back. Part of his army he sent back to Mesopotamia by sea, the rest he marched through the hot desert. The heat was so great that the army had to march at night, water was rationed, and baggage animals had to be killed for food. He reached Babylon worn out in the spring of 323 B.C. He soon fell ill, grew rapidly worse and died at the age of 32, on the 13 June 323 B.C.

Immediately his great empire was split up between his generals. Antonigus became king of Macedon, Ptolemy pharaoh of Egypt, while Seleucus turned Persia into the Seleucid Empire. The League of Corinth split up and Athens and Sparta again became free city-states.

Alexander had a great influence on Asia. Rulers who followed him tried to carry on his system of ruling, spoke Greek, and built cities which copied those of Greece. Greek art influenced the art of India and even reached the western end of the Great Wall of China. But the career of Alexander is the glorious ending of the great period during which the Greeks influenced the whole world through their little states. Nothing new was added until Alexander's great empire came under the control of a still larger one, the Roman Empire.

This was the beginning of a period when philosophers taught the ideas of the brotherhood of man, and that the whole world was really one community. Alexander tried to realize this idea in his empire, but the Romans were more successful in building a 'world state' which lasted for several centuries.





Alexander the Great



## SUMMARY

Alexander was a great man of action who admired the Greek way of life.—In 335 B.C. he sacked Thebes which had revolted against the League of Corinth, and the following year attacked the Persian Empire.—He defeated the Persians at the river Granicus, and at Issus and Gaugamela.—His advance into India after he had defeated the king of India at Bucephala was halted by the desire of his army to return.—The return march weakened Alexander's health and he fell ill and died in Babylon in 323 B.C., having spread Greek civilization and art into Asia. His empire was divided among his generals.

Alexander the Great attacking Darius at the battle of Issus. (A mosaic at Pompeii, which is copied from a painting at Alexandria.) Alexander (left), mounted on Bucephalus, runs his spear through a Persian noble who is trying to defend Darius. Another noble dismounts and offers his horse to Darius who is horrified by the death of one of his bodyguard. Meanwhile the royal chariot driver lashes the horses onward, to escape

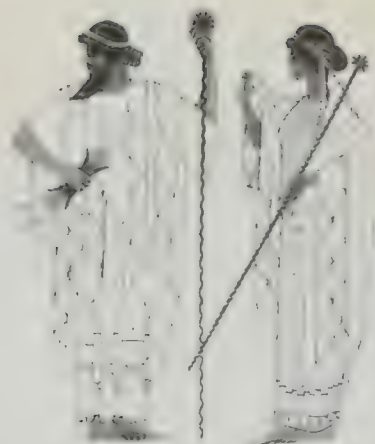


The campaigns and empire of Alexander the Great





# THE GODS OF GREECE



**ZEUS AND**



**Athene**, who jumped, fully armed, from the head of Zeus. She protected her worshippers in time of war. The goddess of Athens whose civilization she protected



**Artemis**, sister of Apollo, goddess of the moon and hunting. She had great skill with the bow

**Aphrodite**, goddess of love and beauty



## THE SEA WORLD

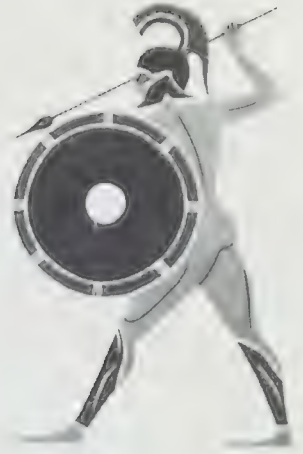
**Poseidon**, brother of Zeus. God of the sea and earthquakes. He carried a three-pronged spear called a trident and gave the horse as a gift to man



## THE SKY

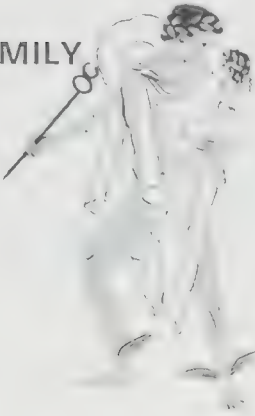
**Zeus**, ruler of Mount Olympus who defeated Chronos his father, using lightning as his weapon

**Hera**, his wife, the protectress of marriage



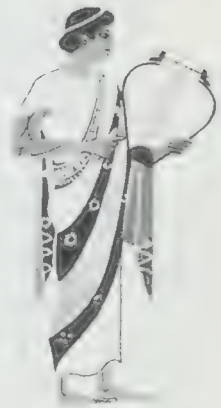
**Ares**, the god of War, a brutal and violent god, feared by the Greeks

## HIS FAMILY



**Hermes**, son of Zeus who took his messages to mortal men, protector of flocks and herds, mischief makers, travellers, traders, orators and writers

**Phoebus or Apollo**, god of the sun and patron of music, prophecy and truth



**Hephaistos**, the lame god of fire and workmanship. Expelled from Olympus. He was a craftsman and on his forge made many articles. The gods gave life to one of his beautiful statues which became Pandora, the first mortal woman



## THE UNDERWORLD

**Hades**, god of the Underworld who married Persephone the daughter of Demeter, sister of Zeus and goddess of crops. She spent six months of each year with her mother who was then happy and crops grew. The rest of each year Persephone spent in the Underworld; her mother was unhappy and nothing grew. Souls going to the Underworld had to be carried across the river Styx, which flowed along its border



**Dionysos**, god of wine and fertility. His mother was a mortal. He belonged to the Underworld, but like the vegetation he represented, he appeared by day. God of the wine, he would wander the earth accompanied by nymphs and satyrs, who personified the rivers, the springs, the woods and the rocks

## CHAPTER 7: THE GODS, BELIEFS AND LEGENDS OF GREECE

The Greeks believed in a number of gods which have become famous from the stories that were told about them.

The Greeks thought that the first creatures to appear from the nothingness from which everything began were the giant Titans or 'elder gods' led by Chronos. His children, led by Zeus, battled with the Titans and overthrew them. They lived on Mount Olympus and were called the Olympians.

The Greeks imagined their gods to have the same good and bad qualities as mortals, the only differences being that they were immortal and had much greater power.

The Greeks had many stories of great men whose lives were affected by the gods. The best known of these were Hercules, Perseus, Jason, Theseus and the Heroes who fought at Troy.

Hercules was a man of huge strength who was given twelve very difficult tasks or labours by the gods to pay for a crime he had committed. These tasks included choking a lion to death; killing the Hydra, a nine-headed monster; capturing a stag with golden antlers after a chase which lasted a year; trapping a great boar; changing



Hercules. He travelled from Asia to Spain in accomplishing his twelve labours

Athletes





A racing chariot

The Temple of Apollo, Delphi. The paving in the foreground is a later Roman addition



**A. Pronaos**  
(entrance hall)

**B. Naos**  
(sanctuary)

**C. Opisthodomos**  
(treasury)





the course of two rivers to clean out the filth from some immense stables; capturing the savage bull of Minos; obtaining the girdle of Hippolyta the queen of the Amazons, a fierce tribe of soldier women; and capturing Cerberus, the dog with three heads who guarded the entrance to Hades the underworld. During his labours Hercules set up two great pillars of rock at the 'entrance' to the Mediterranean, one of which is now Gibraltar and the other Ceuta.

Perseus was famous for killing the Medusa, a Gorgon. The Gorgons were creatures with wings, scales like fish and hair made of wriggling poisonous snakes. They were so ugly that anyone who saw one was turned into stone. Perseus, who rode Pegasus, a horse with wings, killed the Medusa by looking at her reflection in a bright shield. Later he saved Andromeda from a sea monster and married her.

Jason was the leader of a group of heroes, including Hercules, who had many adventures looking for the Golden Fleece. They sailed in a ship called the 'Argo' and were known as the Argonauts. Theseus

Achilles fighting Hector,  
son of King Priam of  
Troy



was another Argonaut who cleared the roads around Athens of bandits and slew the Minotaur, a monster half human, half bull, which lived in the labyrinth in Crete (see page 84). He married an Amazon princess and became king of Athens.

The Heroes of the Greek War against Troy were led by Agamemnon who was the brother-in-law of Helen, famed for her beauty, who had married Paris of Troy. The greatest of the Heroes were the warriors: Achilles, who killed Hector, son of King Priam of Troy; Ajax, and the very crafty Odysseus or Ulysses who thought of the idea of the Trojan Horse. This was an enormous wooden horse which the Greeks built. They then pretended to sail away from Troy. A man left behind told the Trojans that the horse was an offering to the gods for a safe journey home and that it had been made so large to prevent them from taking it into the city of Troy, which would anger the Greek gods. Eager to bring this anger of the gods on their enemies, the Trojans pulled down part of their city wall to haul the horse into the city. Then at night the Greeks returned. They had hidden men in the horse who climbed out to help them and Troy was taken.

The Greeks believed that they could receive messages from the gods through priests and priestesses who were called oracles; the most famous was the oracle of Apollo at Delphi. The priestess at



Zeus about to throw  
his thunderbolt





After the fall of Troy, Ulysses spent ten years wandering as he tried to sail home. Circe and the Sirens tried to lure his crew on to the rocks, so Ulysses blocked their ears with wax. Ulysses himself was tied to a mast, so that though he could hear the singing he was unable to move to respond to the enchantment.

The stories of the wanderings of Ulysses (or Odysseus) before he returned to his native country of Athica are told in Homer's 'Odyssey'

Theseus slaying the Minotaur (*see page 86*)







The statue of Victory at Samothrace



The Priestess of Apollo at Delphi

Delphi always gave the answers to the questions she was asked in riddles. For example, when asked by the people of Athens what would happen to them when Xerxes was coming, the oracle said that the people of Athens and their children would continue to be safe because of the wooden wall, but the Athenians were not sure whether this meant wooden ramparts or ships.

The great events held in honour of the gods were the games. Every great city held its own games, but the greatest were the Olympic Games held at Olympia every four years (map, page 114). Athletes competed from all over Greece. Even wars between cities stopped when the games were held. Olympia was not a town but a stadium in open country surrounded by temples.

The athletes had to train for ten months and the events included running, wrestling, boxing and chariot racing over distances up to nine miles. So hard was the training for each event that the Greek

word for public games has become the English word 'agony'. The winners at the Olympic Games were received with great honour but the only prize that was given was a garland of wild olive leaves. At the city games, however, valuable prizes could be won – prizes ranging from 100 vases of olive oil, as at Athens for a chariot race, to free meals and no taxes, shields and cloaks.

As time went on thoughtful Greeks became dissatisfied with religion based on the old myths of gods and goddesses. They tried to find the truths which lay behind the myths. Their philosophers worked out the principles of right living and of the laws which govern the universe. This led them into mathematical and scientific studies, in which they made use of learning which came from India, Mesopotamia and Egypt.

### *SUMMARY*

The Greeks believed in a family of gods who lived on Mount Olympus and were led by Zeus. —These gods were powerful and immortal, but had the same qualities of good and evil as ordinary men.—The Greeks had many stories of heroes who were great men but whose lives were controlled by the gods. —Messages from the gods were obtained from oracles, the most famous of which was at Delphi.—Games were held in honour of the gods, the most famous being held at Olympia every four years.



The stadium at Delphi

Megalith



## Section 5: THE SPREAD OF CIVILIZATION

### CHAPTER 1: CELTIC EUROPE

Most of Europe had passed into the Neolithic Period during the third millennium B.C. (see page 9). In England the Neolithic people spread along the chalk downs and have been named the Windmill Hill people from an excavated settlement near the great stone circle of Avebury. These camps were probably lived in during autumn and here some animals were killed and their meat dried for the winter. The people lived a simple life, but had learnt how to make pottery. Flint was used for tools and in some areas, on the South Downs near Worthing and Grime's Graves in Norfolk for example, tunnels and shafts were dug into the chalk to find good flints, and specialist craftsmen shaped them on the spot. These people buried their dead in long barrows.

This building of barrows with large stones, called megaliths, has given its name to the next culture which developed, the Megalithic people. Their tombs are of three types, 'chamber tombs' made of two 'walls' with a large 'cap stone' for a roof originally at the centre of barrows; single standing stones; and groups of standing stones (see page 138). These are found not only in western Europe, but also in India, Africa, China and Japan. However, it is likely that their structures were not all built by one people but by people of quite different cultures, who also used large stones for their building. Many archaeologists believe that the ideas of megalithic building spread from the tombs of the Minoan civilization, which in its turn had developed them from an earlier people. As the ideas of their buildings spread they had to be changed to fit the building materials in the different countries.

It is now possible to date some of these excavated tombs by means of radio-activity. Work is still being done on this, but information available at present suggests that Megalithic building in western Europe took place between 3500 B.C. and 1000 B.C.

It is likely that a knowledge of the use of bronze spread into western Europe in the same way: first a few articles were brought from the eastern Mediterranean, then small groups of metal workers





The spread of the Megalithic Culture and the distribution of tombs in Western Europe

joined together and gained enough skill to use it for making all weapons and ornaments (see page 31).

The people of western Europe with whom the Megalithic builders settled and mixed are known to archaeologists as the Beaker people from their beakers or drinking cups some 6 inches high. The Bronze Age spread over Europe during the second millennium, reaching England about 1500 B.C. By the late Bronze Age (1000 B.C. in Britain) bronze was being used not only for weapons but also for such implements as buckets and trumpets. The Beaker people were living in western Europe when the Indo-European invasions of the latter half of the second millennium B.C. took place. It was from these invading peoples that an iron-working people called the Celts came.

The first Celtic people known to archaeologists are called the Hallstatt people who lived in central Europe around 600 B.C. They used iron which they developed and this enabled them to spread into the lands of the people who only had bronze weapons. A more

developed people were those of La Tène in Switzerland around 500 B.C. The speed of their invasions increased as they overcame other peoples with their light two-wheeled war chariots.

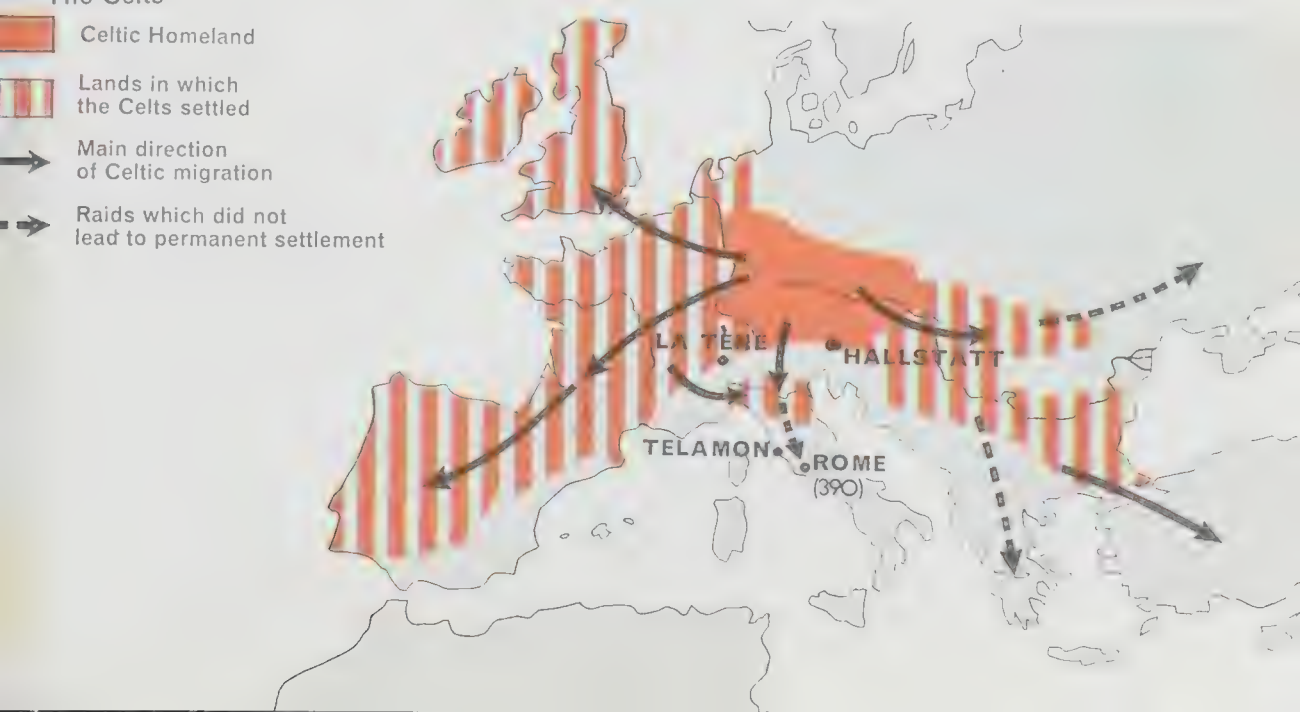
As each Celtic tribe conquered a new area they settled down on farms. For protection they fortified the tops of hills so that they could defend themselves and their cattle from attack. The largest of these in England is at Maiden Castle in Dorset.

The Celts, however, remained a group of tribes. They grouped together sometimes to conquer new lands or to defend themselves, but often they fought each other and this weakened them. In 390 B.C. they attacked Rome which they took and sacked, apart from the citadel on the Palatine Hill to which the Romans retreated. The Celts made a surprise night attack on the citadel which was defeated when the geese, who were the birds sacred to Juno, were awakened and gave the alarm. They had been helped by a Roman girl who asked as a reward to be given the articles they wore on their left arms, meaning their heavy gold bracelets. However the Celts despised her treachery against her own people and instead threw their shields, which they also carried on their left arms, at her and so killed her. The Romans finally paid the Celts a ransom of 1,000 pounds of gold to go away.

The Celts were defeated by the Romans in Italy at Telamon in 225 B.C. and had been defeated in Asia Minor some 15 years earlier. They lived as a people who became known as Gauls, in what is now France, until they were conquered by Julius Caesar in 58 B.C.

The native languages of Wales, Brittany, Ireland and Scotland and the Isle of Man are developed from the Celtic language. The

#### The Celts

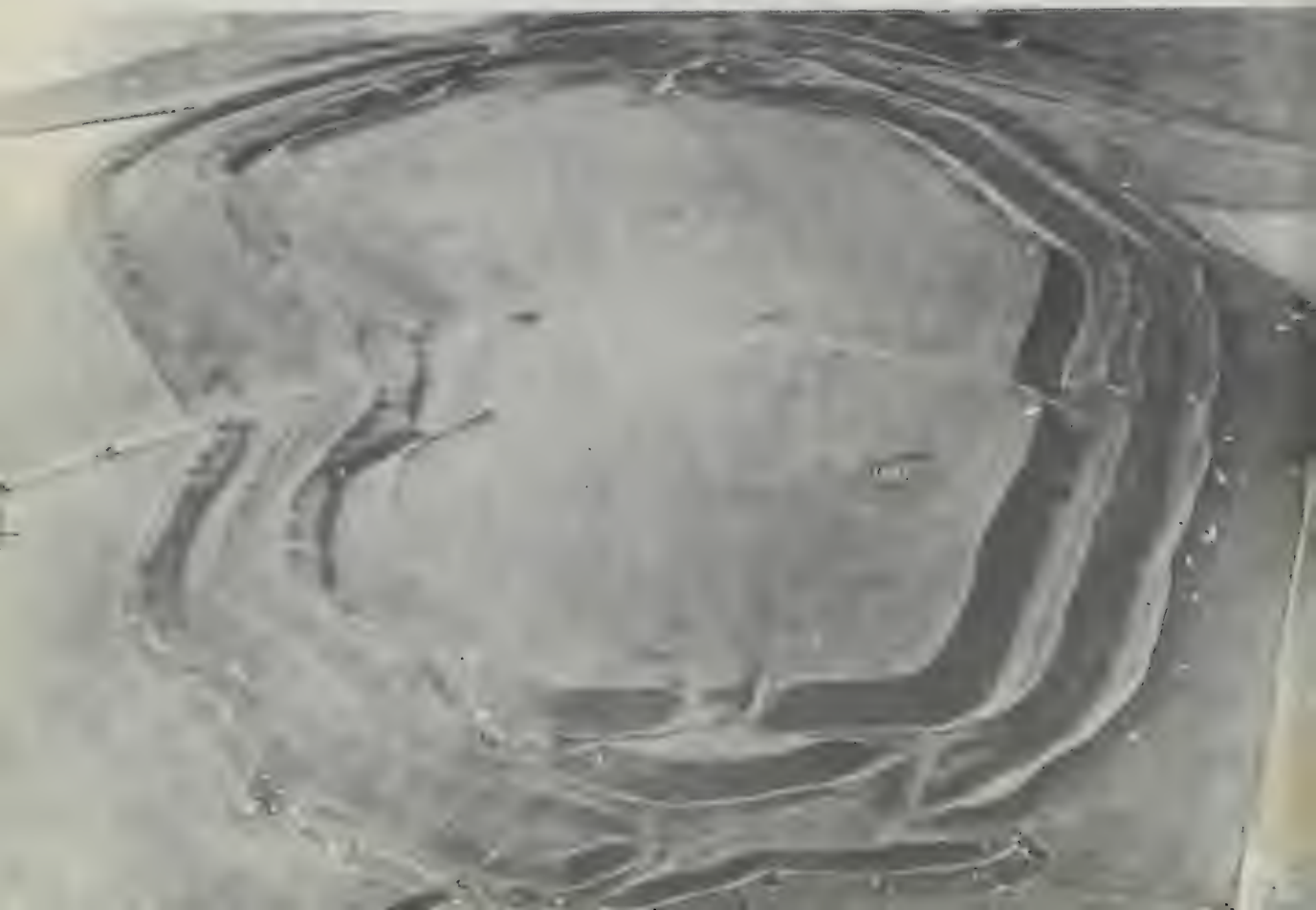




religion of the Celts is not well known but their priests, called Druids, had great influence among some tribes. In Britain they were centred on the island of Anglesey. There they were finally destroyed by the Romans in A.D. 61. Druids had sacred groves of trees; the oak was particularly important, and the mistletoe was thought to have magical powers. There was a pagan festival held at midwinter (our Christmas). This Celtic belief in the mistletoe is one that has lasted and we still give it an important place in Christmas decorations.

From the time of the La Tène people onwards, Celtic chieftains encouraged art. Their designs were based on flowing curves which were used to make most attractive designs. In England this style of art lingered on, particularly in the west, and influenced that of the Anglo-Saxons some 500 years after the Roman invasion. The old folk stories and legends of the Celts were also kept alive, and told by father to son. These were eventually written down in the same way as Homer wrote down the legends of the Mycenaeans. Two of these series of tales are from Ireland and are about the Ulster hero, Cu Chulainn, and the brave leader Finn and his band of followers, while from Wales come the legends of Mabinogion. These legends became the first literature of these countries, certain parts of which date back to the earliest days of the Celts.

An air photograph of Maiden Castle, Dorset, England, an Iron Age hill fort







Iron Age bucket

### *SUMMARY*

The people of the Windmill Hill culture were the first Neolithic people in England, part of the farming people which spread through Europe during the third millennium B.C. During the next 2,000 years Megalithic tomb builders spread along the coasts and rivers of western Europe.—They settled and mixed with the Beaker people. —Bronze began to be introduced into western Europe by traders, and by the late Bronze Age it was in general use.

The Celts were an iron-using, Indo-European group of warlike tribes who spread out from central Europe during the middle of the first millennium B.C. They occupied the British Isles, built hill forts and were an artistic people. — They settled mainly in France where they became the Gauls, and their culture survives in the language and literature of western Britain and Brittany.



Shield of the 1st century B.C. or early 1st century A.D. from the river Thames at Battersea, England. It was originally backed with wood or leather. The studs are ornamental and are made up of a circular rim surrounding a swastika. Between the underside of the swastika and the surface of the shield is a dark, pitch-like material which forms a basis for red glass filling the spaces between the arms of the swastika



Bronze-mounted wooden bucket, found with two imported bronze vessels, brooches and other objects in the Belgic cremation cemetery at Aylesford, Kent. It contained cremated bones. 1st century B.C. *Detail* The swivels of the handles are decorated with human heads and scroll designs. This is a good example of Celtic art





## CHAPTER 2: THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

According to legend, Rome was founded by the brothers Romulus and Remus in 753 B.C. These brothers were brought up by a she-wolf and many Roman coins show a picture of this. The Romans were a group or tribe of Indo-Europeans called the Latins who settled in Italy some time after 1000 B.C. About 800 B.C. another people, the Etruscans, landed north of Rome, having come from Asia Minor after the break-up of the Hittite Empire. Little is known of these people, because we cannot read the language of their inscriptions. They were a civilized people, soldiers and traders, who were fond of music and dancing and by the sixth century B.C. they controlled a large part of Italy.

During this time Rome became established as a town on its seven hills by the river Tiber. For a period it was ruled by Etruscan kings. The last king, Tarquin the Proud, was expelled from the city by the Romans in 509 B.C. Rome then, largely due to the bravery of Horatius, successfully withstood an attack by the Etruscans. Horatius, with two more brave soldiers to help him, held off the whole Etruscan army on the narrow wooden bridge across the river Tiber. The bridge was destroyed behind them to prevent the Etruscans reaching the city.

Etruscan soldier



Coin showing Romulus and Remus being suckled by a she-wolf



The king was replaced by two consuls who were elected for one year. They had to agree on important decisions and were helped by the senate, made up of the aristocracy called 'Patricians' by the Romans, and two assemblies of the ordinary citizens or plebeians. For the next four centuries there was a struggle for power between the patricians and the plebeians. In the fifth century B.C. the plebeians won the right to appoint Tribunes of the People who had the power of stopping any proposal in the senate by calling out 'veto' (I forbid). By 287 B.C. the plebeians were powerful enough to pass laws without the agreement of the senate.

In spite of the attack of the Gauls in 390 B.C. the Romans slowly extended their power over the tribes which surrounded them, first as far as the Apennines, and then beyond. Although defeated at times, as by the Samnites at the battle of the Caudine Forks in 321 B.C., the Romans were finally victorious. The Samnites were finally crushed, with their Etruscan and Celtic allies, at Sentium in 295 B.C.

This extension of Roman power brought her into conflict with the Greek cities in the south who asked King Pyrrhus of Epirus to help them. At first he defeated the Romans, but his own losses were so great that he complained that if he won many more battles with so many losses he would have no army left. This is the origin of the phrase 'Pyrrhic victory' which means battles won but at a cost too great to be worth it. Pyrrhus was finally defeated and returned to Greece.

Further Roman expansion was prevented by the power of the Phoenician (Latin *Punicus*) city of Carthage, and to the three Punic Wars (see pages 97–100).

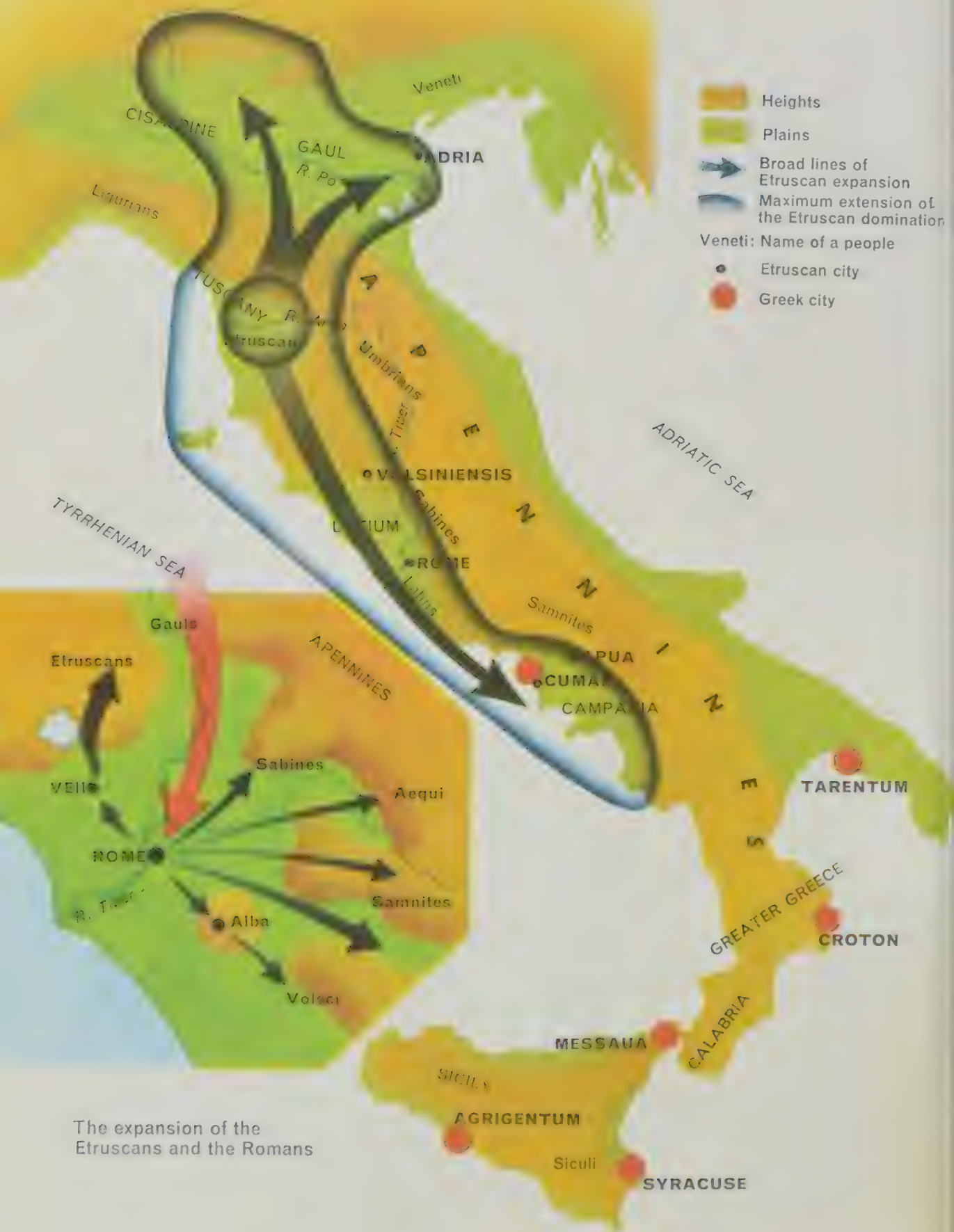
Walls of Servius Tullius (see p. 147)



The Apennines











Etruscan man and woman

#### Plan of early settlement in Rome

1. Romulus' Rome
2. Temple of the Capitoline Jupiter
3. Cloaca Maxima
4. Wall attributed to Servius Tullius
5. Chief Circus
6. Subclivus Bridge



The war with Carthage involved the Romans in war with Philip V of Macedon whom they defeated in 197 B.C. at the battle of Cynoscephalae; with Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, at Magnesia seven years later; and with Perseus, son of Philip V, at Pydna in 168 B.C. In 146 B.C. an alliance of Greek cities was defeated and Corinth sacked and burnt to the ground.

Meanwhile the struggle for power between the patricians and plebeians went on. Bribery was very common in public life. It was said that the bribes a governor of a province received during his first year of office paid for the bribes he had to give to get the job; those in the second year paid the fines he had to pay for taking bribes; and those in the third year made his fortune. The struggle for power led to riots in Rome. The brothers Gracchus who tried to bring in reforms both died violent deaths. In 88 B.C. the patrician consul Sulla had to march on Rome with his army to prevent a former plebeian consul Marius from becoming commander-in-chief. Marius had already as consul defeated Jugurtha and reformed the army. Sulla defeated Mithridates and returned to Rome to execute Marius' followers who had seized power in his absence. He then ruled Rome as a dictator until he retired in 79 B.C. In 73 B.C. a serious revolt of slaves broke out led by Spartacus, a gladiator. This took three years to crush and 6,000 slaves were crucified as a warning to other slaves who might rebel.

Another general who had served under Sulla, Cneius Pompeius, or Pompey the Great, controlled Rome after Sulla. In 70 B.C. he became consul although he had not previously held any public



Marius



Sulla



Pompey





Caudine Forks

149

King Pyrrhus

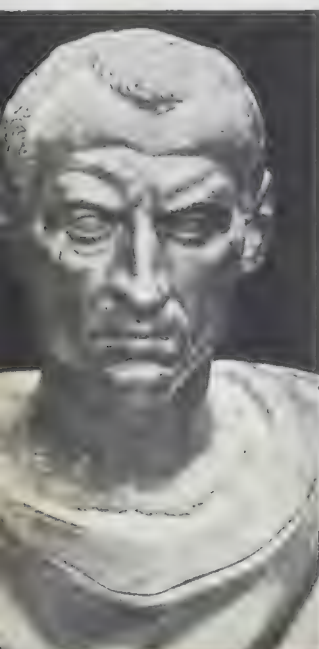


office. He cleared the eastern Mediterranean of pirates and also defeated Mithridates. Meanwhile the great orator Cicero prevented a dictatorship being set up in Pompey's absence.

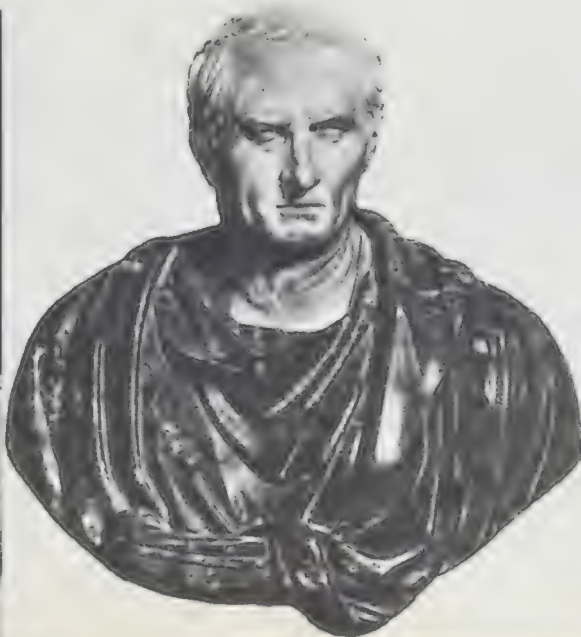
Pompey did not use his army to control Rome but made an alliance against the senate when it refused to grant land to his veteran soldiers, to approve the agreements he had made with eastern rulers or to honour his victories.

The other two men in the alliance were Julius Caesar and Crassus. Under this agreement Pompey obtained the requests refused by the senate, Caesar gained the pro-consulship of Gaul, and Crassus, a banker, the chance of military glory with the command of an army against the Parthians. However the Parthians defeated and slew him at Carrhae.

Julius Caesar



Cicero



Vercingetorix







Plan showing site of Alesia

In a series of brilliant campaigns Caesar conquered Gaul and made two visits to Britain. Perhaps his greatest achievements were the storming of Alesia and Avaricum, the strongly fortified hill forts or 'towns' of the Gauls who were commanded by Vercingetorix in 52 B.C. For 25 days and nights on end the Roman legionaries worked to build ramps at Avaricum up which siege towers could be rolled. At the same time an enormous platform of logs nearly 80 feet high was built which lifted the Romans high above the ramparts. Meanwhile siege machines hurled rocks and flaming darts 12 feet long half a mile into the town.

Fortifications of Alesia





Territory controlled by Rome in the 1st century B.C.

Gaul at the time of Julius Caesar



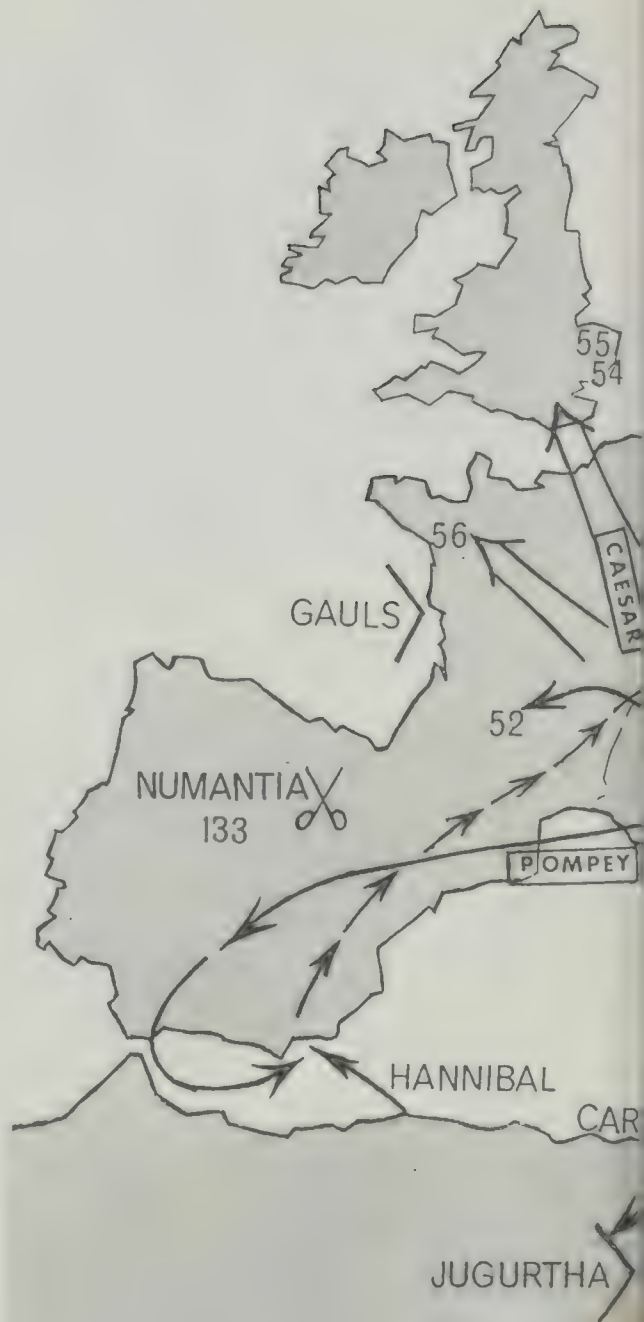
Caesar's conquest of Gaul was designed to make him a rich man and to build up his army and reputation to the size of that of his great rival, Pompey. His excuse for the campaigns was the attempt by the Helvetii (Swiss) to move into Gaul. He defeated them and the Germans, who were their allies, and also various Gaulish tribes who wanted to keep their independence. His campaign against the Veneti in Brittany made the Romans fight on the waters of the Atlantic for the first time, and the support the Veneti obtained from Britain was one of the reasons for the later invasion.

The Romans waged three wars against Mithridates, king of Pontus, during the first century B.C. He was trying to enlarge his own kingdom in what is now north-eastern Turkey. He inflicted a number of defeats upon the Romans and their allies until he was finally defeated and forced to flee when his country was occupied in 73 B.C. Fifteen years later Caesar himself had to defeat a son of Mithridates who was trying to re-occupy Pontus.

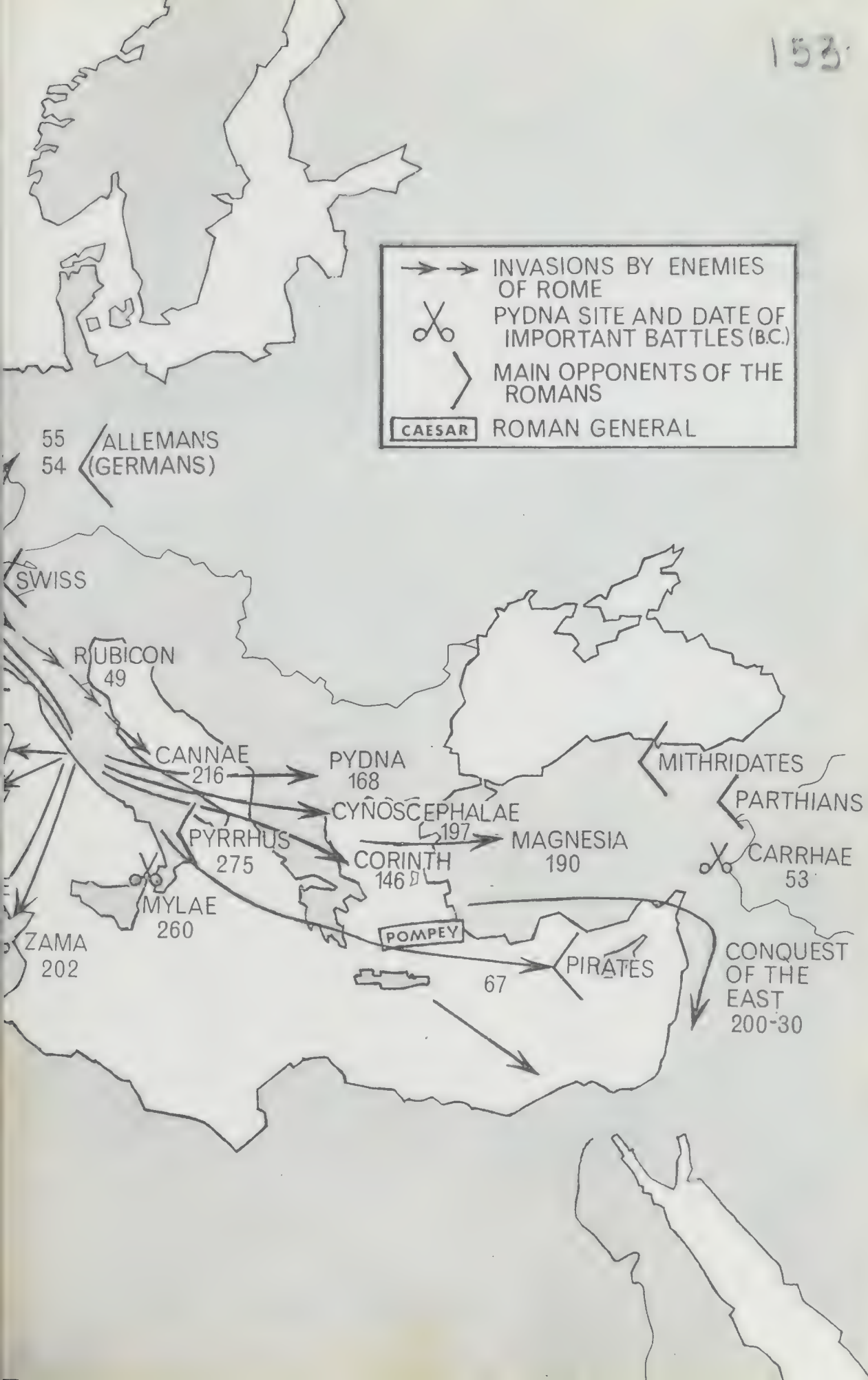
During the second century B.C. the Romans occupied Greece and Macedonia in four Macedonian Wars in which they extended their power over the whole of that part of the Mediterranean Sea.

Jugurtha was a North African who took the throne of his country from the descendants of a King who had supported the Romans against Carthage. During the struggle that followed, some Italians were killed and so Rome intervened. Although this was only a small campaign (110-105 B.C.), it is well known because a history of it was written by the Roman Sallust (86-35 B.C.)

The Parthians were an Eastern people who had a series of wars with Rome. After the death of Alexander the Great, the Kingdom of Parthia was set up about the middle of the third century B.C. and later was part of the Kingdom of Mithridates the Great (see above). During the first century B.C. they inflicted two crushing defeats on the Romans, the greatest being against Crassus at Carrhae. Here they captured the standards of some Roman legions which the Emperor Augustus finally got back by signing a treaty with the Parthians in A.D. 20. Towards the end of the first century A.D. the power of Parthia declined and at the end of the second century the Emperor Severus was able to defeat them and set up a Roman Province in the area.



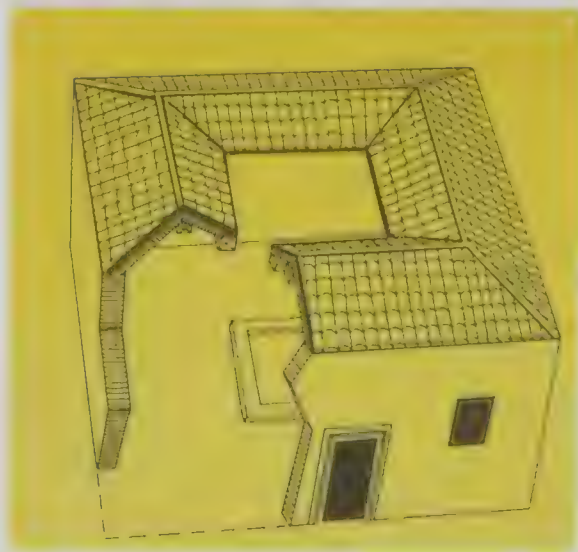




The senate and Pompey became alarmed at Caesar's success and popularity with the plebeians. In 49 B.C. Pompey persuaded the senate to order Caesar to disband his army. His reply was to cross the small river Rubicon, the boundary of Gaul, into Italy with his army. Civil war broke out and Pompey, who was defeated by Caesar at Pharsalus, fled to Egypt where he was assassinated by agents of the boy pharaoh Ptolemy. This pharaoh was killed in battle against Caesar; later his sister Cleopatra ruled Egypt. Caesar returned to Rome where he introduced the 'Julian Calendar' based on a year of 364 $\frac{1}{4}$  days of which he had learnt from Egyptian astronomers. Caesar himself was assassinated by a group of senators in 44 B.C.

Again civil war broke out led by the conspirators who were defeated at Philippi in 42 B.C. by Octavian, the adopted son of Caesar, and Mark Antony, Caesar's old cavalry commander. After this victory Antony married Cleopatra of Egypt and gave Roman provinces to her children. This led to civil war with Octavian. Their fleets met at the battle of Actium in 31 B.C. The result of the battle is uncertain, but Cleopatra and her Egyptian ships fled back to Egypt followed by Antony. Cleopatra tried to win over Octavian when he landed but was unable to do so. She then committed

Rome in the 3rd century B.C. *Inset:* Plan of a house of the 3rd century B.C.







Scene from a Roman comedy, found at Pompeii, the city destroyed by the eruption of Vesuvius in A.D.79

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The Roman Republic during the 1st century B.C.



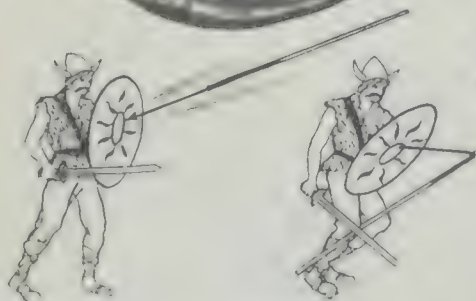


suicide to avoid being carried off to Rome. Hearing that Cleopatra had killed herself, Antony committed suicide. Octavian was supreme throughout the Roman world, and became the first of the Roman emperors, taking the title Augustus in 27 B.C.

### SUMMARY

According to tradition the city of the Romans, one of the Latin tribes, was founded in 753 B.C.—It was under the control of the Etruscans for a time until 509 B.C. when Rome became an independent republic.—Rome slowly extended her power, defeating the Greek settlements in southern Italy, Carthage in North Africa, Macedon and Syria in the eastern Mediterranean.—The struggle for power between the patricians and the plebeians eventually led to the government passing into the hands of generals.—The last and greatest of these was Julius Caesar who had conquered Gaul and defeated his rival Pompey.—After Caesar's assassination civil war broke out and his adopted son Octavian, having defeated Antony at Actium in 31 B.C., became the first Roman emperor and took the title Augustus in 27 B.C.

Commemorative medal of the battle of Actium



A shaft of wood weakened the javelin which broke upon striking a shield, thus causing the opponent to stumble

Javelin (left)

Roman legionaries—members of the Praetorian Guard, the Emperor's Bodyguard



## CHAPTER 3: THE ROMAN ARMY, ROADS AND BUILDINGS

The Roman Republic expanded from a small city to the city that ruled the greater part of the known world. This expansion was due to the power and achievements of the Roman army.

In the early days of Rome its wars were fought by an army of citizens who left their jobs to fight for the city and went back to work when the war was over. Payment for the troops was introduced

Roman armour

Helmet



Long convex shield



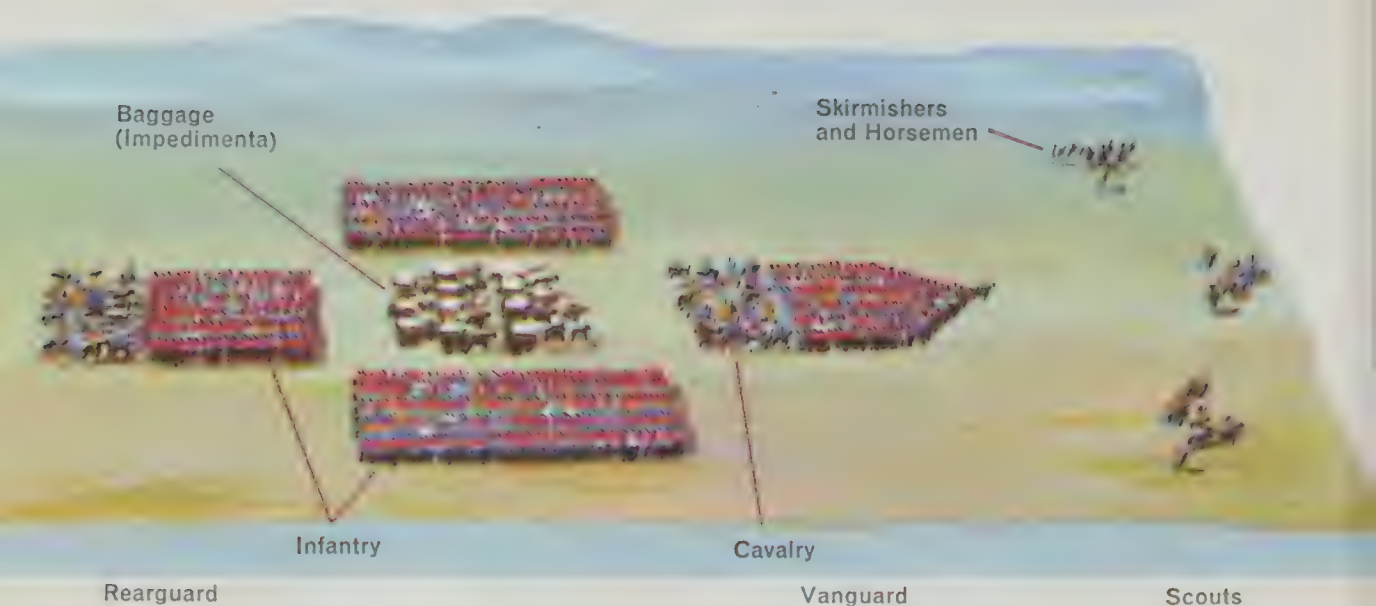
Short sword



Armour-plated jacket







### The legion on the march

during the siege of the town of Veii from 405-395 B.C. when the soldiers had to be kept in the field and were not able to return home to look after their crops. During the fourth century B.C. the army gave up the use of the long spear which it had used and abandoned the use of the phalanx in battle. The army was divided into legions which usually had a fighting strength of some 5,000 men. Each Roman camp





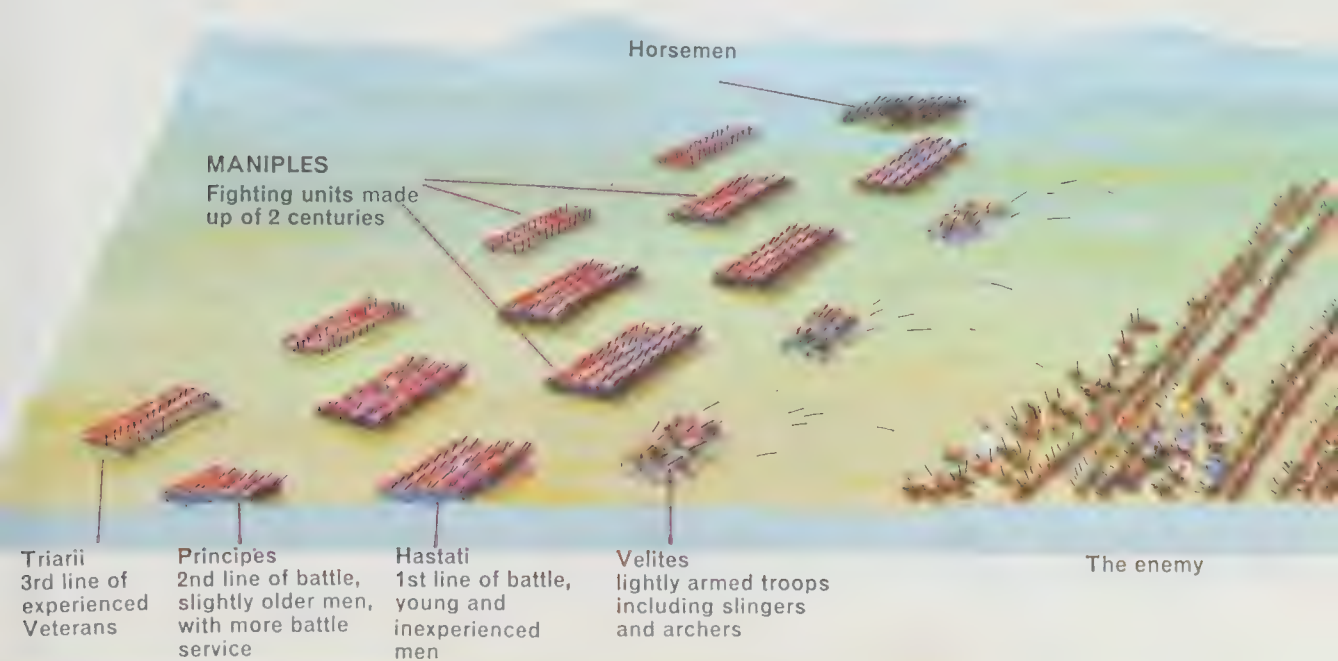
legion was commanded by a legate and six military tribunes. The legionary was the backbone of the Roman army. He had to be a Roman citizen and served for 20 years, and was given a bonus when he retired, often in the form of a grant of land in a country he had helped to conquer. He was a highly trained skilful soldier. In addition to his sword and armour, the legionary carried two throwing javelins. A whole legion was trained to throw both javelins in 30 seconds. This javelin was improved by Marius so that it broke when it landed. The legionary was more than a soldier. He surveyed the country, built roads and bridges, and sowed and harvested crops.

Whenever possible, more lightly armed cavalry troops were used to help the legions. These were recruited from warlike tribes who offered to serve with the Romans and included the cavalry which was used for scouting and to pursue enemies who were running away.

Having given up the phalanx which was not suitable for fighting in the Apennine Mountains, the Roman army fought in three lines, in blocks called maniples, each of two centuries. Centuries had originally been 100 men but now were usually nearer 60. These three lines proved more mobile and enabled the Romans to defeat the Macedonian phalanx at the battle of Cynoscephalae by forcing their way past it and attacking from behind. The long spears prevented a phalanx from turning, and the men in it were cut to pieces.

The Roman army realized that to be effective it had to be able to move quickly. Wherever it went, therefore, roads were built. The first great road was the Appian Way, which was built by the blind

Roman legion in battle formation





### The Appian Way

Appius Claudius at the end of the fourth century B.C. By A.D. 117 no less than 50,000 miles of road connected the empire with Rome. Although these roads were first built to help the legions and government messengers to move quickly, they were also very helpful to trade in peacetime. Wherever possible, the road ran straight from ridge to ridge except where a change of direction had to be used to avoid a piece of difficult land. In the mountains, including the Alps, zigzags were used to make the climb easier and in some very difficult places tunnels were cut.

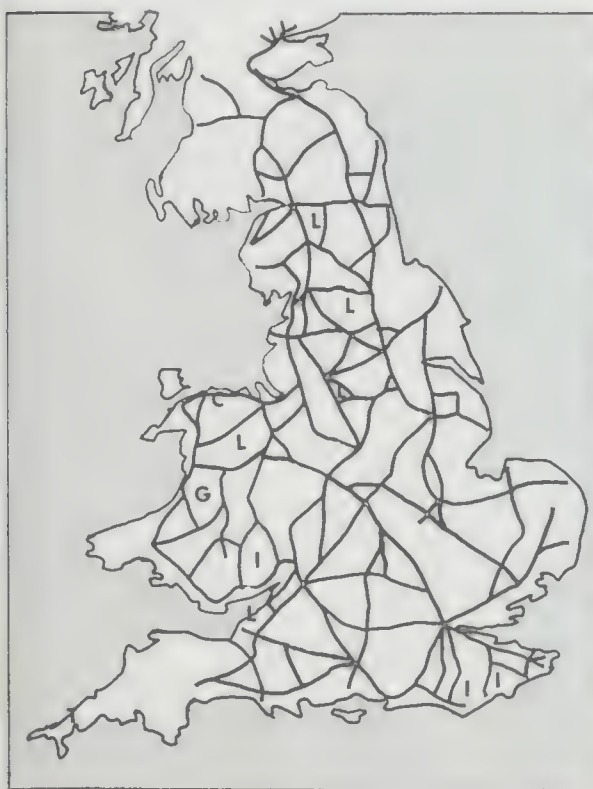
The method of Roman buildings was copied from Greece, but the great Roman development was the building of large vaults. A framework of brick was built, and then filled in with Roman concrete. The secret of this concrete is still unknown. It was stronger than that used today, and the only way in which it can be broken is by the use of explosives. This system of vaulting was used to build huge aqueducts which brought water to the Roman cities.

Rome became a city of great buildings. The aristocracy had developed spacious houses, beautifully decorated, with wall paintings and mosaics. The great men of Rome each tried to impress the





Major roads in the Roman world (except Britain)



G Gold  
C Copper  
L=Lead (and Silver)  
I Iron  
T Tin

Roman roads and metal working in Britain



Roman shop





Aqueduct at Nimes, southern France. Built A.D. 19 and some 180 feet high

people with their buildings. Julius Caesar rebuilt the Forum, the great meeting place of Rome, and re-erected other buildings.

Others followed Caesar's example. Not only did the Roman leaders build these great buildings (Augustus alone restored 82 temples), they also gave the poor bread and games. In the Colosseum 50,000 people watched gladiators fight wild beasts or other gladiators, while in the Circus Maximus over a quarter of a million people watched charioteers tear round the track with its two very sharp corners.



Two gladiators fighting



The ruins of Timgad

Rome: The Forum, with plan



*Note:* The Basilicas, named after important Roman families, were law-courts. Originally they were open, having columns and not walls. Later they were walled in and became the models for early Italian churches.

- Old buildings
- Building built by Caesar
- Buildings reconstructed by Caesar
- Later buildings



Perhaps the best idea of what a Roman city was like can be seen from the ruins of the city of Timgad in Algeria. Unlike Rome, the site has not been built on since the days of the Romans who built it where main roads met.

The Public Baths were an important part of the Roman way of life. Each Bath had a cold bath, warm bath and hot steam bath and most bathers went through each of them and then were massaged and rubbed with oil by slaves.

### *SUMMARY*

The Roman army was divided into legions of some 5,000 men, commanded by a legate.—The army was based on legionaries, heavily armed, highly skilled and trained infantrymen, who fought in three lines.—The Roman world was joined together by a first-class system of roads which connected the cities of the empire. Each city had its own public buildings which included Public Baths, an important part of the Roman way of life.—In Rome itself the main buildings were the Colosseum and the Circus Maximus.

Ruins of a Roman house at Pompeii, looking from the front. In the foreground is the pool in the part of the house called the atrium. Beyond is the colonnaded peristyle which was open to the sky. Around the peristyle were the rooms of the house

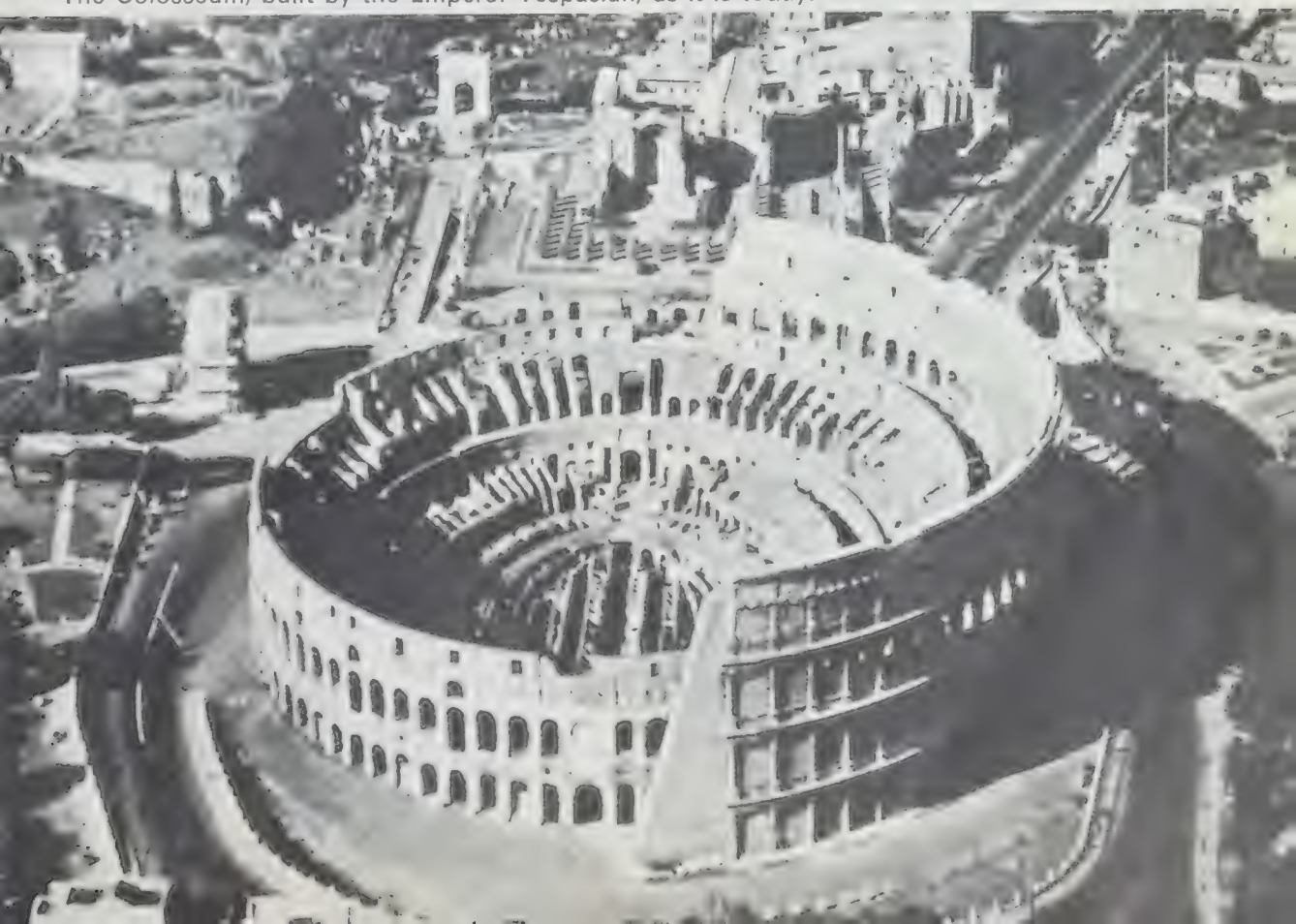






Reconstruction of Imperial Rome. Note the Circus Maximus (bottom left), the Colosseum (right) and the aqueduct of Nero (bottom left to centre) built to bring water into the city. The eight major aqueducts delivered 220 million gallons of water daily and the Circus could certainly seat a quarter of a million people and probably a further 100,000

The Colosseum, built by the Emperor Vespasian, as it is today.







Wall painting in a Roman house at Pompeii

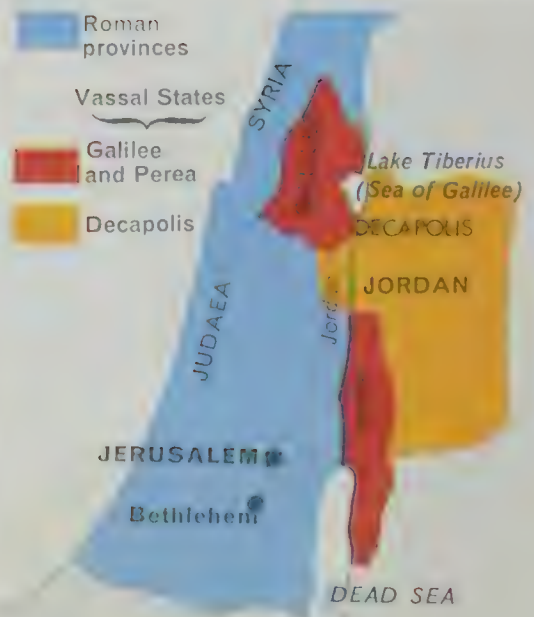


A shrine to household gods at Pompeii

Gold coin or aureus



Palestine under the Romans



## CHAPTER 4: THE ROMAN EMPIRE AND THE SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY

Octavian was the first Roman emperor and in many ways the greatest. He reigned for 45 years and was given the title 'Augustus' meaning 'revered'. Not only did he rebuild many buildings in Rome, but he introduced a period of peace which became known as the 'Pax Roma', the Peace of Rome.

This was done by taking power away from the possible rivals. All power was in the hands of Augustus himself. He controlled the armies, dominated the senate and was careful only to appoint people who supported him to all important jobs. A personal bodyguard for the emperor was established in Rome, called the Praetorian Guard.

Roman Emperors

Octavian Divine Augustus'  
31 B.C. to A.D. 14



Tiberius. A good general, but a harsh ruler (14–37)



Caligula. Believed to be insane and was assassinated (37–41)



Claudius. Conqueror of Britain (41–54).



Nero. Blamed a great fire which destroyed Rome A.D. 64 on the Christians, whom he persecuted (54–68)



Vespasian (69–79)







168 River transport

The frontiers of the empire were extended, but in A.D. 9 the Germans destroyed three legions under Varus in the battle of the Teutoberg Forest and this prevented the frontier being extended to the river Elbe. Augustus encouraged the worship of ancestors and, after his death in A.D. 14 became regarded as a god himself, and was referred to as the 'Divine Augustus'.

The Roman army was now a defending force of some 25 to 30 legions, who with the auxiliary troops made up a total force of less than half a million men to guard a frontier which stretched for 10,000 miles. Joining the army was one way in which a person who was not a citizen of Rome could become one and obtain the privileges this citizenship carried.

Inside these guarded frontiers the civilization of the 90 million people of the Roman Empire was based on the cities, all of which tried to copy Rome. The cities were ruled by magistrates who were carefully elected by a council, usually made up of a 100 ex-magistrates. The magistrates had honours and privileges and in return were expected to spend their money on improving the city. The costs of this 'public service' increased as time went on and it became increasingly difficult to find people prepared to serve as magistrates.

The cities of the empire obtained their wealth from trade. They were sited on the Roman roads along which imperial messengers covered 50 miles a day. Ships could sail from Rome to Alexandria in three weeks. About 120 ships a year sailed to India, the round trip taking nearly a year. Marcus Aurelius sent a trade mission to China.

#### Roman Emperors:

Titus (A.D. 79-81)



Domitian (81-96)

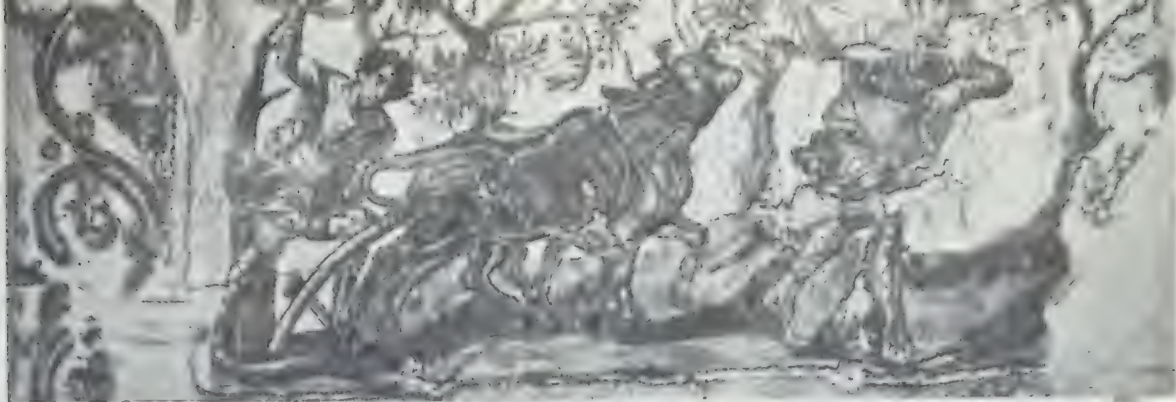


Nerva (96-98)



Trajan (98-117)





Working in the fields

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The Roman roads made it possible for the potteries of Gaul and Germany to send their goods all over the empire. Heavier loads such as wine were carried along the great rivers of the empire, the Danube, Rhine, Rhône, Nile and Thames. Merchants had the gold coins of the emperor to pay for the goods they bought. No taxes were paid on these goods apart from duties charged to keep the harbour in good repair and free from mud.

Men of all races and colours travelled freely about the empire, taking with them their customs and religions. For example the worship of Mithras, the Persian sun god, was practised all over the empire, particularly on the frontiers where he was popular with soldiers.

Romans officially kept their old religion which was based on that of the Greeks. In the early days each family had its own household gods and altar. In time the religious services were performed by priests and the Romans learnt to discover the will of the gods by studying the entrails of animals which had been sacrificed.

Christians being thrown to the lions







The Roman Empire under Augustus

During the empire the first dead emperors were made gods as a form of memorial and then the emperor, the Pontifex Maximus or chief priest, became regarded as a god in his lifetime and all loyal Romans were expected to worship him to show their loyalty to Rome and the empire.

Trade routes of the Roman Empire







The Roman Empire from the death of Augustus A.D. 14 to the death of Trajan A.D. 117

To the educated Roman, these ceremonies he performed in public meant very little. So, of all the other religions which were brought to Rome, only Christianity was banned and its believers persecuted. This was because the Christians' faith would only permit them to worship the one God, and they would not burn incense in front of a statue of the emperor; this to the Romans seemed like rebellion. For nearly

Roman Emperors:

Antonius (138–161)

Hadrian (A.D. 117–138)



Marcus Aurelius (161–180)



Commodus (180–192)



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three centuries Christians were blamed and punished for all kinds of things – plague, fire, rising prices and invasion of the empire. They were crucified, burnt alive and torn to death by wild animals in the arena of the Colosseum. Christians were not allowed to bury their dead in the Roman burial places but had to use as burial grounds, the dark underground tunnels outside the city called the Catacombs, which they also used for secret religious services.

But at last in A.D. 313 Christianity was made legal throughout the empire by the Roman emperor Constantine, who was himself baptised as he lay dying. The empire and the Church came closer together. The Christian symbol of the Cross was put on Roman coins, and the emperor's title of Pontifex Maximus was given to the Pope or Pontiff as head of the Church.

At the end of the third century Diocletian had re-organized the government of the empire to strengthen it. The Church was now organized in exactly the same way.

Eighty years after the last persecution of Christians by Diocletian in 305 the Church itself was beginning to execute heretics. So quickly

Temple of Mithras, now under the church of San Clemente, Rome







The catacombs

had the power of the Church grown that in 390 St Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, was able to force the emperor Theodosius to do penance. The old public buildings of Rome were turned into churches and bishops helped in the government of towns. As a result, when the Roman Empire lost its power the Church was able to keep the faith of the empire alive.

The great authors of Rome and the Latin language flourished during the last years of the republic and the empire. Some of Cicero's essays and speeches have survived and Julius Caesar himself wrote an account of his own campaigns. Four of the great writers all lived at the time of Augustus. Virgil wrote four books of poems called the 'Georgics', but his greatest work was the 'Aeneid'. This is an epic in twelve books in which he describes the wanderings of the Trojan survivors after the fall of Troy and how their leader Aeneas founded the Roman nation. During the epic Aeneas visits the underworld and Virgil takes the opportunity to describe the yet unborn heroes of Rome, including Caesar Augustus. The story of Rome from the founding of the city

Scene of the passion of Jesus Christ





to the reign of Augustus was also written by the historian Livy, while the traditions of Rome were praised in the poems of Horace. Ovid wrote love poetry but his great work was the 'Metamorphoses' which retells almost all the stories of Roman and Greek mythology.

Later writers include famous historians: Suetonius wrote 'Lives of the Caesars'; Tacitus wrote a biography of Agricola, a governor of Britain; Pliny the Elder, a scholar, wrote no less than 37 volumes of Natural History; his nephew Pliny the Younger, famous for his letters, was at Pompeii when it was destroyed by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in A.D. 79 and later became a consul and provincial governor under Trajan.

### SUMMARY

Augustus was the first Roman emperor who restored peace and extended the empire to 80 million people. The frontier was fortified and within it cities grew rich by trading along the roads and rivers of the empire. Various religions were brought to Rome where the old religion based on the Greek gods lingered on, and all were expected to worship the emperor. The Christians were persecuted for not doing this until the empire became Christian in A.D. 313 under Constantine. —After this the Church ruled by popes rapidly grew in power. The great Roman writers were Cicero, Julius Caesar, Virgil, Livy, Horace, Ovid, Suetonius, Tacitus and the two Plinys.



Aerial view of the Roman amphitheatre at Verulamium (St. Albans).

*Inset:* The theatre at Timgad



## CHAPTER 5: ROMAN BRITAIN – A PROVINCE OF THE EMPIRE

To the Romans, Britain was a largely unknown land which lay on the edge of the world. They were amazed at Caesar's daring when he first crossed to Britain in 55 B.C. Britain was known as a country which exported corn, cattle, gold, silver, iron, hides, slaves and clever hunting dogs. Caesar again crossed to Britain in 54 B.C. when he marched as far as Wheathampstead in Hertfordshire, one of the main settlements of King Cassivellaunus, who surrendered to Caesar. The Britons of south-eastern England were close relatives of the Gauls whom they had helped against Caesar, who used this as his reason for invasion.

The troubles of the late republic and early empire prevented further Roman invasion until A.D. 43 when Claudius sent an invasion force of four legions with some war elephants. The Britons under Caractacus proved no match for the Romans who slowly advanced and conquered England and Wales. Caractacus fought on for nine years but was finally defeated and taken as prisoner to Rome.

Excavations at Maiden Castle (see pages 139–40) have provided evidence of the Roman conquest. The bodies of defenders have been found, the bones of which still show the slashing cuts of the auxiliaries' swords, the stabs of the legionaries' swords and the small square hole

The modern A.5 road in Bedfordshire looking south towards Dunstable. This follows almost exactly the line of the Roman Watling Street





☐ Later Forts

### Boudiccas Revolt

— — — — Approx. frontier 43-58 B.C.

### ICENI Main Native Tribes etc.

### Dates are of campaigns

The early frontier was along the line of the Fosse Way, a Roman road from Exeter to Lincoln. This was found to be a difficult frontier to defend. The governor Suetonius Paulinus therefore advanced into Wales, crushed the local tribes and destroyed the Druids in Anglesey who were encouraging the attack on the Romans, who disliked their habit of human sacrifice.

While Paulinus was fighting Wales a serious revolt broke out in A.D. 61 in the south led by Boudicca,\* the widow of the king of the Iceni. Outraged by the behaviour of Roman officials, this tribe swept south and destroyed Colchester and London. They were joined by other tribes and swept north to meet the legion of Paulinus. St Albans (Verulamium) was destroyed and further north along Watling Street over 100,000 Britons confidently attacked some 10,000 Romans.

\* Sometimes called BOADICEA.

Paulinus however had chosen the site for battle carefully so that his well-trained troops could make full use of their better weapons and armour. The Britons were forced back in disorder against their own wagons and slaughtered. It was estimated that about 75,000 Britons died.

From 78 to 142 northern Britain was conquered, largely by the governor Agricola, whose exploits are recorded by the historian Tacitus. Roman troops reached as far north as Aberdeen and the Roman fleet sailed completely round Britain. But the need for troops in other parts of the empire led to a withdrawal from Scotland to the frontier defences of Hadrian's Wall, built by the Emperor Hadrian 123-8. Behind these defences, manned by some 50,000 men, Britain became a province of the empire, its civilization based on cities, parts of which still remain.

Britain continued an important producer of metals and corn. The corn was produced on large estates which had large houses or villas. These houses became particularly important in the fourth century when the cost of being a magistrate in the cities made wealthy people want to live in the country. These large villas had up to 100 rooms on the ground floor. Each country house had its own baths. The corn was sent by water wherever possible, to feed the Roman army; it was exported from the Wash to the frontiers in Germany. The increased interest in archaeology during the last 20 years has led to the discovery of many more Roman villa sites. This has meant that estimates of the number of people in Roman Britain have had to be changed and it is now thought to have been over two million.

The Roman granaries at Corbridge, Northumberland





In the third and fourth centuries Britain suffered from the troubles which were to be found in other parts of the empire. Its defence was weakened by commanders who took troops from Britain to fight in internal struggles and to meet other threats. At the end of the second century Hadrian's Wall was wrecked by an attack of the Picts from Scotland. The wall was repaired. In the mid third century a series of attacks by pirates made it necessary to build forts to protect the coasts.

In 367 both the Picts and the Irish made great raids into Britain, reaching about as far as London. They were finally expelled, but in 410, the year in which Rome itself was sacked, the Emperor Honorius was forced to tell the cities of Britain that they must look after their own defence. This some managed to do. In 429 a bishop helped the people of St Albans fight off attacks, and in the early sixth century the advance of the Anglo-Saxons was stopped by Artorius (King Arthur) who was a 'Romanized' Briton.

### SUMMARY

Britain, on the edge of the Roman Empire, was invaded by Julius Caesar, in 55 and 54 B.C.—Britain was occupied after the invasion by Claudius in A.D. 43.—The revolt by Boudicca was defeated in 61 and later the governor Agricola conquered the rest of northern England and defeated the Picts in Scotland. In 123–8 the Emperor Hadrian had a wall built to protect northern England from attacks from Scotland.

Britain became a province of the empire, its civilization based on such cities as London, Wroxeter, St. Albans and Bath.—Britain was a big grower of corn on large estates called villas.—Roman troops were withdrawn for civil wars and to defend other parts of the empire.—Barbarian attacks increased and in 410 the cities of Britain were told to look after themselves.

Hadrian's Wall





Wall built by the Emperor Aurelian A.D.270-275 to protect Rome from possible barbarian attacks

## CHAPTER 6: THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE IN THE WEST

In A.D. 180 the Emperor Marcus Aurelius died, probably of the plague which was sweeping through the empire. His successor was a very weak emperor interested only in the games and pleasures. After 12 years he was assassinated and his bodyguard, the Praetorian Guard in Rome, tried to sell the job of emperor to the person who would pay the most. The armies in the provinces proclaimed their own commander as emperor. The commander on the Danube, Septimius Severus, an African by birth, marched on Rome, defeated his rivals and became emperor.

Severus realised that he was only emperor because he was supported by the army. He and his successors therefore tried to keep the support of the troops. Discipline was relaxed, rations and other privileges increased. These changes and the attacks on the frontiers of the empire cost more and more money, and three more legions had to be raised. This meant higher and higher taxes. The rich tried to avoid taking part in any form of government because it could ruin them and their jobs would be taken over by the army. At the same time the num-





The triumphal arch built by Emperor Constantine

ber of poor people increased. To prevent riots and rebellions they were provided with food, money and medicine, but this meant yet more money had to be spent, which again meant higher taxes. One way in which the emperor tried to get more money was by making more, and this he did by putting less gold and silver in coins. This is called debasing the coinage. This made money more plentiful but there was no more to buy. Prices went up. Wages could buy less, and this increased the number of the poor.

Severus was an able man and he managed to hold these problems in check. Less able men succeeded him and conditions grew steadily worse. During the second half of the third century, rival emperors came and went each lasting only a few years.

While the armies made and unmade emperors the frontiers were raided on all sides, but the badly disciplined Roman army often damaged the provinces more than the raiders. The danger of invasion was so great that all the cities of the empire were forced to build walls to defend themselves from possible attack. The cities found it increasingly difficult to trade. The rising prices had forced many of the poor to become robbers to live. In an attempt to hold the empire



Roman Emperor Valerian A.D. 253–60, captured during Sapor's invasion of Syria A.D. 257 and kept in captivity in Persia

together the worship of the emperor was enforced and this caused a revival of the persecution of Christians when they refused. In spite of this the number of Christians and power of the Church increased.

The period of civil wars ended when Diocletian became emperor in 284. He made himself a dictator. The army was brought under control by breaking up the legions into smaller groups so that each general commanded fewer men. The frontiers were made stronger, and the provinces also made smaller, so that each governor should not become too powerful. This increase in control made it necessary to increase the number of civil servants. To control them the provinces were grouped into dioceses, each controlled by a vicar (see page 184). These were grouped into four, each under a prefect. To help him to govern











Constantine



Diocletian





-  Wall of Constantine
-  Wall of Theodosius  
(408-50)
-  Imperial palace
-  Hippodrome
-  Senate
-  St Sophia
-  Capitol
-  Cisterns

Plan of Constantinople

The Tetrarchs (A.D. 293) Diocletian (*2nd from right*) with his fellow Emperor and two Caesars. This sculpture is now in Venice

Diocletian set up another emperor to rule the West while he himself ruled the East, although Diocletian took care that the Western emperor was under his control. Both had the title Augustus, and to prevent civil war breaking out when they died two successors (one for each) were appointed in their lifetime. These were given the title of Caesar. This 'Government by Four' was called the 'Tetrarchy'.

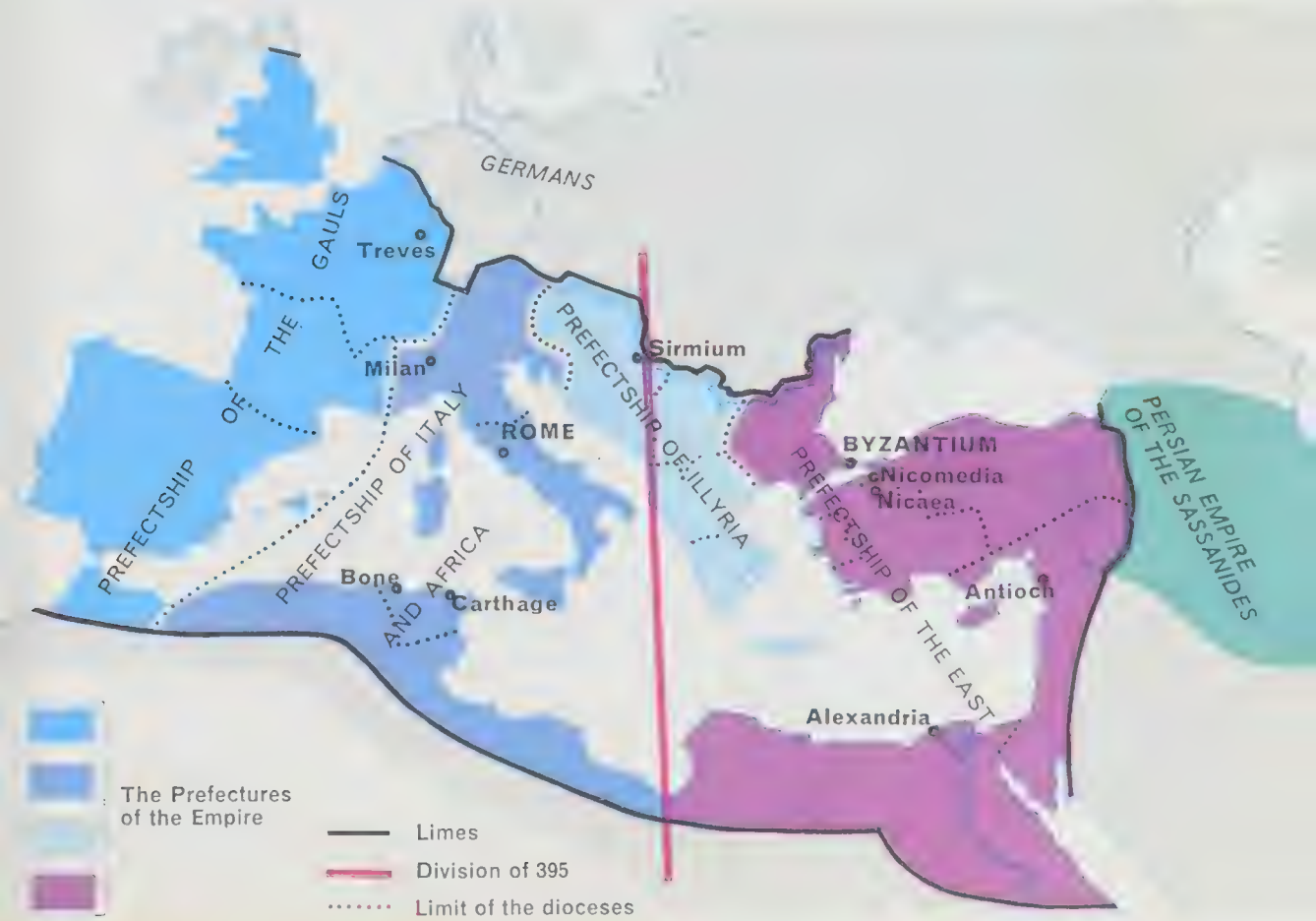
In a famous Edict in 301 Diocletian tried to fix maximum prices for all goods and wages throughout the empire. This was a very long list which included all goods, from wheat and barley to sparrows and dormice. The result was that goods disappeared from public markets (where the prices were controlled) to secret sales (where they were not). Thus developed the type of illegal trading known as a Black Market. Diocletian realised he had failed and gave up his attempt to stop prices going up and they rose unchecked. To increase the money he raised from taxes Diocletian had a census taken, which was an enormous list of people and their possessions all over the empire. Later



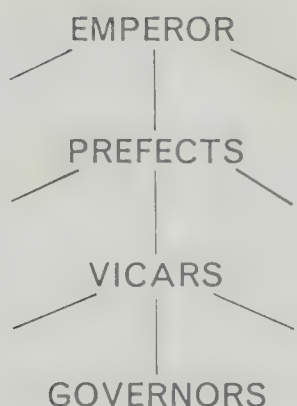
Jesus, the Good Shepherd, at Ravenna

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Reorganization and Division of the Roman Empire







The organization of the Church and the Empire

Constantine used this information to make control by the government easier. Men were prevented from changing their jobs and sons were forced to follow their fathers and do the same jobs. The sons of farmers were forced to farm, and those of soldiers to be soldiers. In an attempt to make all worship him as the son of Jupiter, a persecution of Christians was started in 303 by Diocletian.

In 305 Diocletian and his fellow emperor retired, but again the army tried to appoint the emperors. By 324 Constantine set himself up as the only emperor. Before the battle in which he won control of Rome in 312, Constantine was said to have seen a vision of a cross in the sky with an inscription which said 'Win your victory by this sign'. He immediately ordered his soldiers to put this Christian sign on their standards. After his victory he proclaimed that all religions should have equal rights and in the Edict of Milan he gave back to the Christians their possessions which had been confiscated. In 325 Constantine called the first ecumenical or world-wide council of the Church at Nicaea to discuss the ideas of the Church.

One year before, Constantine had decided to build a new capital city, Constantinople, on the site of the old Greek city of Byzantium and this city was officially dedicated in 330 to the Holy Trinity and Mary, Mother of God.

After the death of Constantine in 337 civil war again broke out between his sons. A distant relative, Julian (361-363), tried unsuccessfully to replace Christianity by the old gods of Rome.

The struggle against barbarian invasions continued. The emperor, Theodosius the Great (379-395), came to an agreement with the

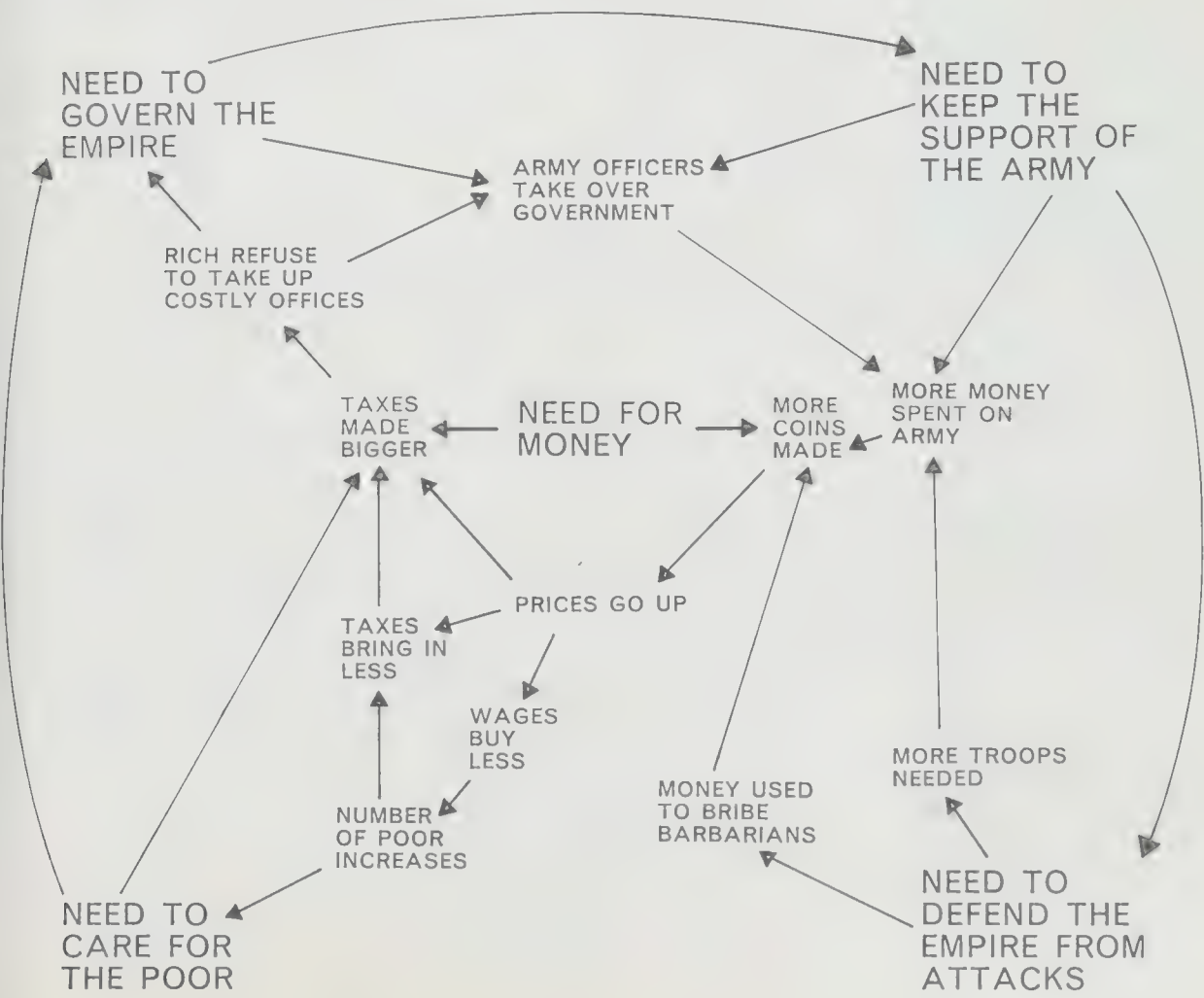
Goths. He gave them land inside the Roman Empire, in return for which they were to help the Romans to fight any further invaders. These new military allies were called 'foederati'. The province of Britain invited some Saxons to settle on the East Coast as foederati.

In January 395 Theodosius died and the empire was divided between his two sons. Although they did not realize it, this division of the East and the West was to be for ever. The invasions continued and in August 410 Alaric, leader of the Visigoths, sacked Rome itself.

SUMMARY

Severus increased the importance of the army which meant higher taxes and the empire became more and more short of money.—The civil wars of the third century were stopped by Diocletian who reorganized the army and government.—The empire was ruled by a tetrarchy of four under Diocletian who unsuccessfully tried to destroy Christianity.—Constantine became the first Christian emperor, united the empire but built a new capital in the East.—The barbarian attacks continued and in A.D. 410 Alaric 'the Goth' sacked Rome.

The Problems of the later Empire





# THE GODS OF ROME

## SATURN

The father of Jupiter. His daughter was VESTA, goddess of fire. He had inherited his kingdom from his brother TITAN



## MINERVA

The goddess of wisdom. She was the goddess of war and was supposed to have invented spinning, weaving, olive trees and war chariots



## RHEA

Wife of Saturn, mother of JUPITER

## VENUS

The goddess of love and beauty, a daughter of Jupiter and mother of Aeneas who escaped from the Greeks after the sack of Troy and settled in Italy and from whom the Romans traced their descent. Venus was often attended by another son, CUPID, whose arrows could make anyone fall in love



## JUPITER

God of air and earth



## DIANA

Sister of Apollo, goddess of woods and hunting

## NEPTUNE

Brother of Jupiter and Pluto

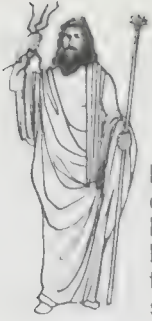
## NEPTUNE

Brother of Jupiter and Pluto, god of the sea. The Roman general, Pompey, called himself the son of Neptune after he had defeated the pirates in the Mediterranean



## PLUTO

God of the underworld



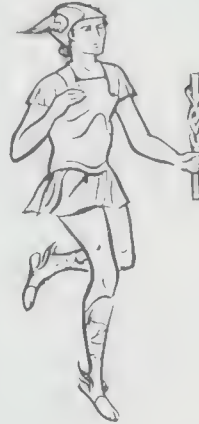
### JUPITER

King of gods and men who defeated Saturn and divided his kingdom with his two brothers. His weapon was the thunderbolt and his sacred bird the eagle

**MARS**  
Son of Juno and god of war. He was the father of Romulus, the founder of the city of Rome. His sacred animals were the horse, wolf and woodpecker



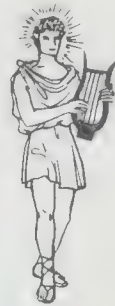
**JUNO**  
Wife and sister of Jupiter and the goddess of marriage. Her sacred bird was the peacock



**MERCURY**  
Son and messenger of Jupiter, god of eloquence and merchants, inventor of the lyre and harp

### APOLLO

Son of Jupiter, god of poetry, music, medicine, prophecy and archery. The laurel, hawk and raven were sacred to him



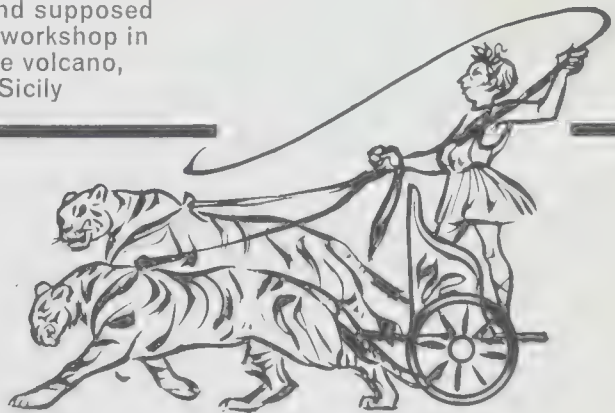
### VULCAN

Son of Jupiter, god of fire and blacksmiths. He was lame and supposed to have his workshop in a cave of the volcano, Mt. Etna in Sicily



### PLUTO

Brother of Jupiter and Neptune who carried off PROSERPINA, daughter of CERES the goddess of corn and farming (whom he kidnapped while she was picking flowers on the slopes of Mt. Etna). The Underworld was reached by crossing the river Styx and was guarded by the three-headed dog, Cereberus



### BACCHUS

Son of Jupiter, god of wine and revelry. He travelled in a chariot drawn by tigers, lions or lynxes





## CHAPTER 7: INDIA

After Alexander the Great had left northern India a kingdom ruled by the Mauryan Dynasty was set up. The founder of this dynasty was Chandragupta (322–298 B.C.) who took the kingdom from Magadha.

Chandragupta joined together the peoples of the valleys of the rivers Ganges and Indus and Afghanistan. Irrigation and the use of water were carefully controlled and heavy taxes raised to pay for the government and the army.

The greatest ruler of this dynasty was the grandson of Chandragupta, Asoka (269–232 B.C.). He is still considered the greatest emperor to rule India. In a number of costly wars he extended the Mauryan kingdom. In one campaign it was said that 100,000 people were killed and in another 150,000 were captured, while still more died of famine and starvation. Asoka was so horrified by all this suffering that he became a Buddhist and gave up war. Instead he sent Buddhist missionaries all over India and as far away as Ceylon, Syria and Egypt. Monasteries were set up for monks to learn and pray and many of his inscriptions, carved on stone, still exist. Buddhism so changed this great warrior that he ordered that no more sacrifices should be made and that all slaves should be treated properly.

Soon after Asoka's death the Mauryan Empire broke up, the last king being murdered by his own commander-in-chief in 185 B.C.

New peoples invaded India from the north. Little is known of them. First the Sakas and then the Kushans added part of northern India to the land they ruled to the north. The Kushans were converted to Buddhism which spread very quickly along the caravan routes to China at this time.

From the accounts written by a Chinese traveller in India a little is known of the Guptas who ruled an empire in northern India until they were defeated by the Huns. The greatest of the Gupta rulers was Chandragupta II (375–413) who governed a peaceful and prosperous empire.

This was the great age of Indian civilization. The Mahabharata was written down in Sanskrit at this time and the Guptas encouraged poetry and music. Some of the Indian folk tales of this time later influenced Aesop, Boccaccio and Shakespeare. In the Buddhist centres of learning such as Nalanda in Bihar, the knowledge of mathe-



The Mauryan Empire under Asoka 250 B.C.

The pillar of Asoka which he had erected in 249 B.C. in the Lumbini Garden (now in Nepal) where the Buddha was born. It was cut out of solid rock



India under the Guptas A.D. 400

The Emperor Asoka had many stone columns set up throughout the lands he governed. On these and on rocks his edicts were engraved. In his 13th edict he expressed sorrow for the brutal way in which he had conquered other peoples





matics, chemistry and the study of metals was the best in the world. The Indians invented zero, meaning 'nothing', the decimal system, and the 'Arabic' system of numbers. These were called 'Arabic' because people in western Europe first heard of them from the Arabs who learnt them from India. Indian dyes were famous in the Roman Empire while Indian knowledge of iron-working was so good that even today no one knows how they were able to make the 'iron pillar', which still stands on the outskirts of Delhi, in such a way that it has not rusted, even after 1,500 years.

In the fifth century A.D. the Guptas were defeated by the Huns from central Asia and what happened in India is unknown. Another Chinese traveller gives some details of Harsa, a king who conquered an empire in northern India during the first half of the seventh century.

In the same way little is known about southern India. From time to time great rulers conquered large kingdoms for themselves. They learnt the ideas of Buddhism and Hinduism from the north. Great care was taken over irrigation which was developed. The Tamil kings were great sailors and they carried on a valuable trade with Rome. This trade took them all over South-East Asia and they took the ideas of Indian religion, art, and building with them to such places as Cambodia and Indonesia.

### *SUMMARY*

The Mauryan Dynasty took over the Magadha kingdom in 322 B.C. Its greatest ruler was Asoka (260-232 B.C.) the grandson of the founder Chandragupta.—Asoka built up a large empire and became a convert to Buddhism.

The Mauryan Dynasty ended in 185 B.C. and India was invaded from the north.—The Gupta Empire flourished, the greatest ruler being Chandragupta II (375-413).—Under the Gupta rulers Indian learning developed, particularly literature, mathematics and metallurgy.—The Guptas were defeated by the Huns from central Asia in the fifth century A.D.



Buddhist temple

The East after the death of Alexander the Great c. 200 B.C.



Civilization in Europe and Asia c. A.D. 150



## CHAPTER 8: THE HAN DYNASTY

The Ch'in Dynasty was overthrown by a series of revolts against its harsh methods. It was replaced in 206 B.C. by the Han Dynasty. This dynasty ruled China for 400 years.

The ideas of Confucius were put into practice. Other studies were forbidden and all government officials had to pass an examination on the writings of Confucius. The Emperor Wu Ti (140-87 B.C.) extended the borders of China to North Vietnam and Manchuria and forced the Huns back beyond the Gobi desert. A trade route was set up to the west (see page 170). In A.D. 97 one Chinese officer got as far west as the Persian Gulf. References to China and her goods can be found in the Roman writers of the early empire. In A.D. 166 a Roman envoy arrived in China.

Great efforts were made to find all the writings of Confucius. A Chinese dictionary was written and this great interest in books and writing led to the use of the brush pen for Chinese characters and, in A.D. 105 to the invention of paper. This was first made by Ts'ai Lun from vegetable fibres, fish nets, hemp, rags and the bark of mulberry. This rapidly replaced the old strips of bamboo or silk rolls. There was also a great study of medicine and many thousands of students were trained in medical schools.

Irrigation schemes were developed and attempts were made by building high banks to control the floods of the Yellow River. Methods of farming were increased and new crops including grapes, oranges and lemons brought in. In the third century B.C. tea growing increased rapidly and this was soon the national drink of the Chinese people.

It was under the Han Dynasty that the Chinese met the people of Japan. The people of Japan had come in prehistoric times from China and Korea. However there is no written account of the history of Japan until the eighth century A.D. when two great chronicles were written, the *Kojiki* and *Nihon Shoki*. These explain how the gods of the Sun and the Storm, sister and brother, quarrelled and how the storm god Susanowo was turned out of heaven because of his behaviour and went to live in part of what is now Japan. These islands had been created by his father. The grandson of the sun goddess came down from heaven to rule Japan and the descendants of Susanowo submitted to him, and it was his great-grandson who became the

first earthly emperor in 660 B.C. This belief in a number of gods, closely connected to the forces of nature, became known as 'Shinto' or 'The way of the gods'.

The date 660 B.C. for the first emperor Jimmu Tenno given by the chronicles is not historically accurate. It is now believed he ruled Japan soon after the birth of Christ. Soon after this the Chinese writing of the Han Dynasty spread to Japan but it was not used officially until the beginning of the fifth century and even then it was only understood by the scribes at the emperor's court.

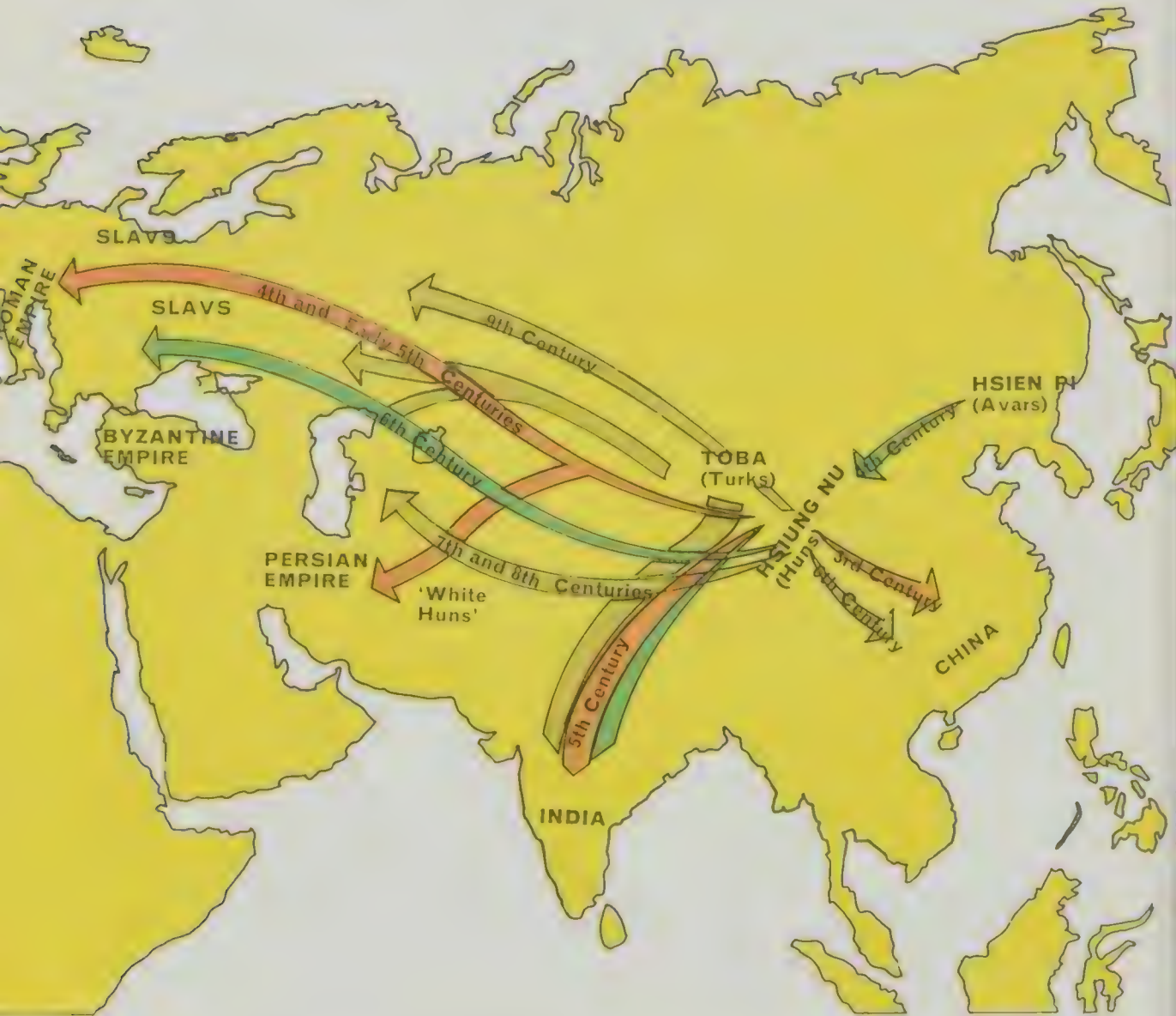
Japan learnt much from the people who came from Korea and China. Their greater knowledge and learning was recognized so that the noble families of Japan liked to claim that they had Korean or Chinese ancestors. Large numbers of these people settled in Japan and brought with them their knowledge of how to use metals and how to look after silkworms and make silk from their threads. This contact with the mainland of Asia led to the introduction of Buddhism about the middle of the sixth century and this religion was adopted by the Imperial family.

Meanwhile in China a struggle for power developed during the second century A.D. between the relations of the emperor and the officials who ran the country. At the same time the taxes collected by the officials increased the number of poor people. Revolts broke out and after the death of the last Han emperor in A.D. 220 the empire split into three kingdoms, each with an emperor. They were briefly joined together from A.D. 265 to 317 by a Ch'in Dynasty but they were driven south of the river Yangtze by invaders from the north who set up no less than 16 small kingdoms. These new peoples mixed with the Chinese and learnt Chinese ways. These kingdoms were slowly joined and were ruled by the Toba Tartars, a race very similar to the Mongols. In A.D. 589 they conquered the southern Chinese Ch'in Dynasty. During these troubled years Buddhism spread rapidly in China but the threat of further invasions from the north remained and four times between A.D. 540 and 610 the Great Wall was strengthened. Other great engineering work included the building of the Grand Canal. A million labourers were used to join up the existing canals between the capital Loyang, Hangchow, Cho-chun (near Peking) and the Long River.



## SUMMARY

The Han Dynasty 206 B.C.—A.D. 220. The borders of China were extended, government improved, trade industry art and literature developed. Government officials had to pass an examination in Confucianism. —Paper was invented and tea grown. —Japan learnt Chinese ways from the first century A.D. onwards. The religion of Japan before Buddhism was introduced was Shintoism.



Invaders from Central Asia during the first millenium A.D.

# WEST

The **HUNS** in the 4th century conquered those Germanic people who had not moved. They provoked the Vandal invasion in 406; tried to invade Gaul in 451 and Italy in 452—the Germans stopped them. After 460 they disappeared.

The **VANDALS** associated with other barbarian peoples, they set up an independent kingdom in Spain, after 410. They were driven out by the Visigoths in 439, when they crossed over to Africa. From the part of Africa now called Tunisia they dominated the whole of the western Mediterranean for a century.

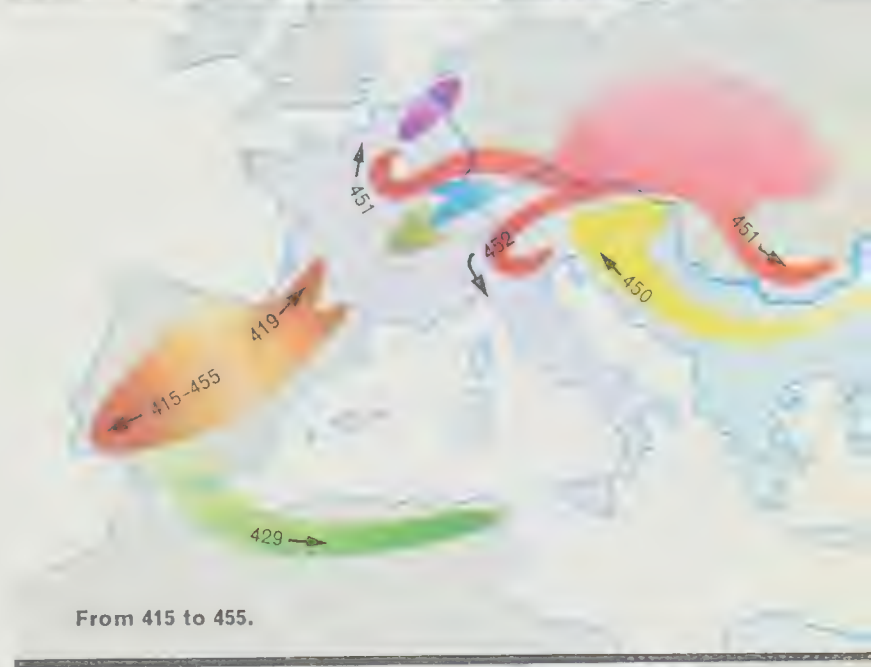
The **VISIGOTHS** settled in Illyria in 400 and invaded Italy in 410. They sacked Rome but failed in their attempt to conquer Italy. They settled in southern Gaul from 410 to 415. From there, in 80 years they conquered Spain and south-west Gaul as far as the Loire.

The **OSTROGOTHS** tried in vain to settle in Italy, after their entry into the Empire in 378. Installed after 450 in Illyria they eventually reached Italy where their King Theodoric created a mighty barbarian kingdom at the beginning of the 6th century.

The **BURGUNDIANS** and the **ALEMANS** fought among themselves. Fleeing from the Alemans, the Burgundians installed themselves in Savoy after 440. Their kingdom slowly spread towards the Massif Central and the Durance until the end of the 5th century.

The **FRANKS** divided into very different groups. They only started moving south after 450. But they played a very big part in the Roman army.

Invasions of Europe in the 5th century





## Section 6: THE DECLINE OF CIVILIZATION

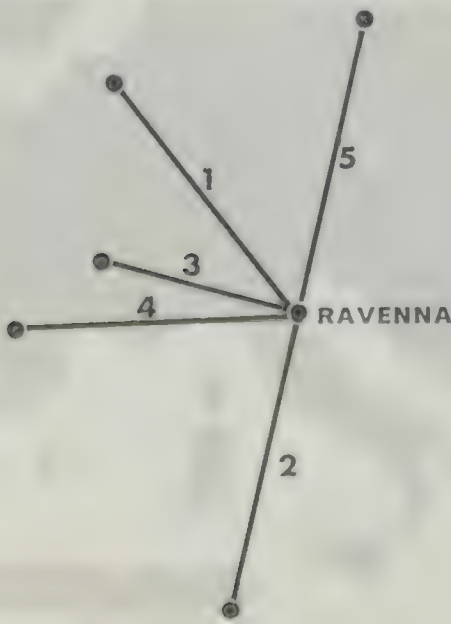
### CHAPTER 1: THE BARBARIAN INVASIONS

The invasions which affected China, India and the Roman Empire were all caused by the movement of peoples which started in central Asia. Here fierce nomadic horsemen lived a hard life and from time to time, driven by food shortage caused by bad weather, or because the tribes became too numerous for the feeding grounds, these fierce warriors swept down on the more civilized parts of the world.

In the fourth century A.D. a people in eastern Mongolia, whom the Chinese called the Hsien Pi, moved westwards. In so doing they forced another race, the Hsiung Nu or Huns, to move westwards. This they did looking for plunder and new lands. When they approached Europe they caused the Germanic tribes who had settled there in the third and early fourth centuries to move and attack the empire. After A.D. 378 the Eastern Empire managed to divert these attacks and it was the Western Empire which suffered most.

In the West the movements of the different Germanic tribes can be followed from the maps.

The Western Empire officially ended when the last emperor was deposed at Ravenna in northern Italy in 476. In 489 Italy came under the control of Theodoric the Great who connected himself by marriage to the other barbarian kings. However, after the death of Theodoric in 526, Justinian, the Eastern emperor, reconquered the Ostrogoth kingdom based on Ravenna and drove the Ostrogoths over the Alps and they disappeared from history.



#### The marriages of the family of Theodoric the Great

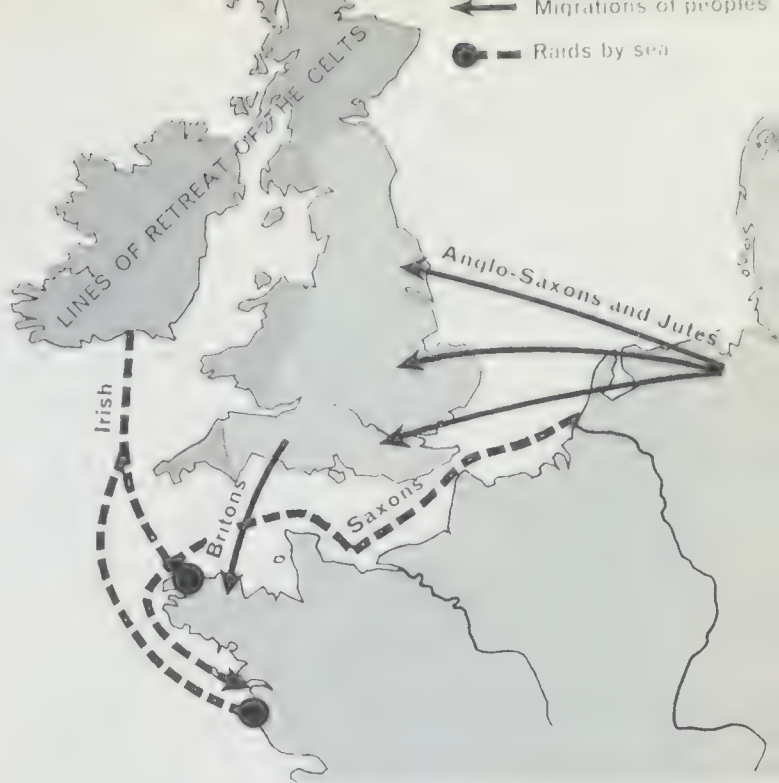
- 1 Theodoric married a sister of Clovis, king of the Franks.
- 2 Theodoric's sister married the king of the Vandals.
- 3 Theodoric's daughter married the brother of the king of the Burgundians.
- 4 Another of Theodoric's daughters married the king of the Visigoths.
- 5 A niece of Theodoric married the king of the Thuringians.

## INVASIONS IN THE NORTH WEST

The **ANGLO-SAXONS**: slowly conquered the whole of south and east of Britain; they gave it its present name. The Saxons layed waste to the coasts of Gaul; where they also settled.

The **BRITONS**: defeated by the invaders in spite of their spirited defence, emigrated towards Armorica which they had visited on sailing expeditions, and which they probably sacked from the beginning of the 5th century.

The **IRISH**: were plunderers like the Britons and the Saxons



This Eastern reconquest did not last for long. The Lombards invaded Italy and set up a kingdom based on Pavia.

France came under the rule of the Franks. Their king, Clovis, was converted to Christianity in 496 and he conquered the Burgundians in 500 and the Visigoths north of the Pyrenees in 507. He moved his capital from Soissons to Paris.



















The sons of Clovis divided the kingdom between them and it was not united again until 613. After this the power of the Merovingians, as the descendants of Clovis were called, declined and the local land-owners became more powerful. The king's power was taken over by an official called the 'mayor of the palace'. These officials became more powerful. It was one of them, Charles Martel, who defeated the Moslems at Poitiers in 732.

Britain had been warned by Honorius in 410, that she must defend herself against outside attacks without further help from the Romans. The Saxons who had been settled on the coasts to defend them began to extend their power and they were joined by their kinsmen from northern Europe. The Britons fought these new invaders. In the early sixth century a Briton, Artorius (Arthur), defeated the Saxons at a great battle at Mount Badon, although historians are not certain where this was. It was this victory that started the legend of King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table. Heavily armed men on horseback (the knights of the legend) were now being used all over



# The settlement of 'Barbarians' on the Roman frontiers



ROMAN EMPIRE		FEDERATED PEOPLES		PEOPLE OUTSIDE THE EMPIRE	
	Western part	 Franks	 Saxons	 Huns	 Alemans
	Eastern part	 Burgundians		 Vandals	 Burgundians
	fortified or guarded frontiers	 Alemans		 Ostrogoths (East Goths)	 Franks
		 Ostrogoths		 Visigoths (West Goths)	 People of the Steppes
		 People from the Steppes		 People from the North Sea	





not overcome by the barbarians. Under the Emperor Justinian I (535–563) some lands were reconquered: North-East Africa from the Vandals (530–540); Italy from the Ostrogoths (535–563) and part of south-east Spain from the Visigoths (554).

Justinian encouraged trade and Constantinople became rich through trading with Russia, China and India as well as with the countries of the Mediterranean.

Roman law was written down (see page 202) and a number of great churches built. The greatest of these was the Cathedral of the Holy Wisdom (Sancta Sophia). Built in 5 years, this church is a fine example of Byzantine building. It has a great dome and was decorated with mosaics.

After the death of Justinian the power of the Byzantine Empire weakened. In 614 Jerusalem was captured by the Persians. The Persians were defeated in 630 but by this time a new power was developing to the south that threatened both the Persian and Byzantine Empires.

Land was also lost in the West. The Lombards conquered most of Italy (568–571). The Slavs settled in Thrace and Greece and the Avars crossed the Danube and, with the Slavs, attacked Constantinople in 626 by land and sea, but were unable to break its strong walls.

In the East, Justinian was able to reconquer part of the empire from the barbarians, encourage trade, codify Roman law and build churches in Constantinople. However, after his death there were further barbarian attacks in the West and Persian attacks in the East while a new power was developing in Arabia.

### *SUMMARY*

The invasions of the empire were caused by the movement of the Huns from central Asia. The Western Empire ended in A.D. 476 and Italy was occupied by the Lombards in the sixth century A.D.—France governed by the descendants of Clovis, the Merovingians, until they were replaced by the mayors of the palace. —The Britons had some success in holding back invasions until the middle of the sixth century. —Byzantine Empire, not overcome by barbarians. —Emperor Justinian's achievements. —Power of Byzantine Empire declined after his death. —A new power threatened Persian and Byzantine Empires.

## CHAPTER 2: THE LEGACY OF ROME

Roman ideas were the ideas of western Europe for nearly 500 years and of the east for 1,000 years longer. As a result they have had a great influence on Europe.

The barbarians who attacked the Roman Empire were impressed by what they saw, by the splendid buildings and roads. Wherever possible they tried to copy the Roman ideas and ways of life they found. This was helped by the way in which the later emperors used barbarians in the army, for instance the king of the Visigoths was made a Roman general. Latin survived and became the 'Romance' languages of the invaders – French, Spanish, Portuguese and Italian. When the barbarians settled, the people of the Roman Empire accepted them, although this is less true of Britain where a more spirited resistance was put up. There was no enslavement of the people and a form of the Roman system of government was adopted.

This 'Romanization' or 'making Roman' of the Germanic tribes was helped by the fact that both the Romans and Germans were Christians. The Germans had been converted and therefore accepted the rule of the Church. In this way the Church helped to continue the ideas of the empire. The barbarian kings set themselves up as little Roman emperors and the Church was the only power with any influence over them.

The money systems too continued to be based on the old Roman 'solidus'. This was copied by barbarian coiners and the quality of coins declined until the old design was very difficult to recognize, but it was still copied on new coins. The barbarian kings also took over the Roman tax system and all the lands which the emperor had owned were taken over by the kings. They copied Rome in their control and government, but their followers lived violent and cruel lives and the standards of the old empire declined.

In the East, the Eastern or Byzantine Empire carried on in the ways of Rome. Constantinople was a copy of Rome, built on seven hills and divided into fourteen regions. Many of its buildings were exact copies of those in Rome. The Eastern emperors used the Roman civil service and the army was organized in the Roman way.

In the Eastern Empire there was a strong Greek influence. Latin was the official language of the empire until the end of the sixth





century but the ordinary people spoke a form of classical Greek which has become the Greek language of today. A new form of art called Byzantine art was developed and Oriental domes were added to buildings. The Roman robe or toga was replaced by a more Eastern form of dress. In spite of these differences, however, the people of Constantinople still described themselves as Romans.

Further East, Russia was influenced by the Eastern Empire. When Constantinople was captured by the Turks in 1453 the grand dukes of Moscow proclaimed that they were the successors of Constantine and Moscow was the 'Third Rome'. Roman law influenced the law of Russia and Roman coins were used for many years.

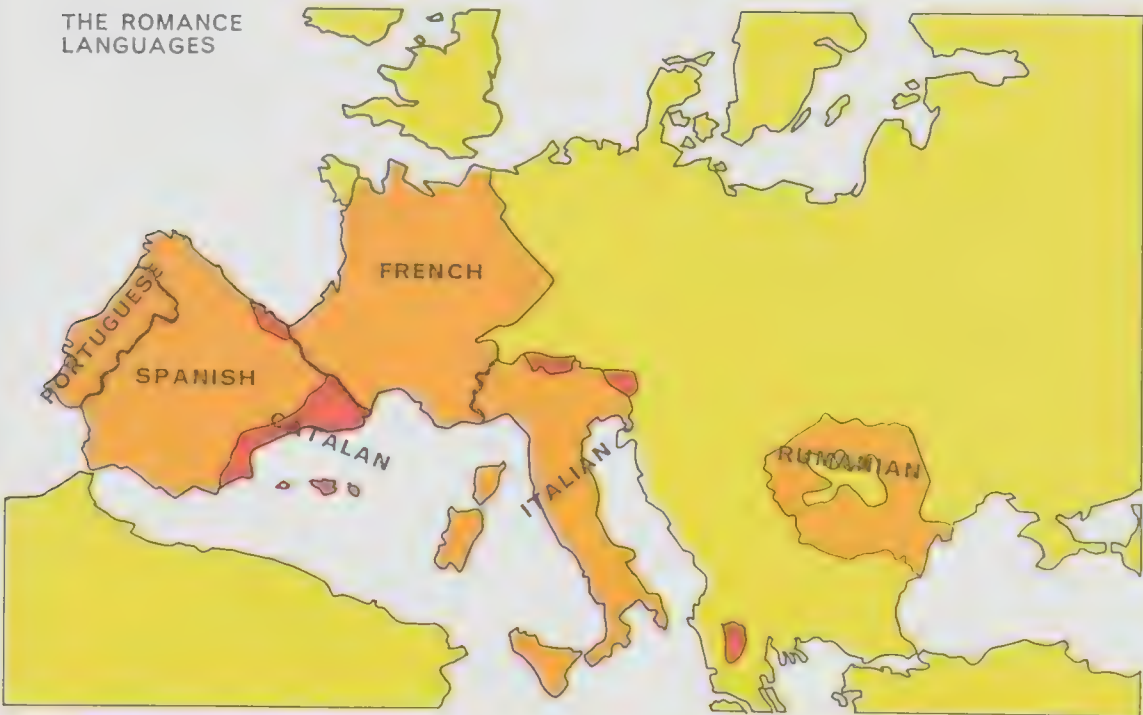
In the West the Church itself carried on Roman ideas. The organization of the Church had been based on that of the empire (see page 184) and the Church kept Latin as its official language. The great writers of Rome were read and copied by Christians, and it is because of this so many of the works and ideas of Rome have survived.

Perhaps the greatest legacy of Rome is the Roman system of government and law which has influenced Western civilizations ever since.

When Charlemagne made himself ruler of western Europe he took the title of emperor and travelled to Rome to be crowned in 800. This empire was called the Holy Roman Empire in 962 and this lasted until destroyed by Napoleon in 1806. Napoleon, however, was a follower of the ideas of Rome and named parts of his empire after provinces of the Roman Empire.

Roman law has grown since 450 B.C. when the first laws had been written down in the Twelve Tables. The essential part of this system of law was that both sides in a dispute were heard by a magistrate who then decided which side was right and gave a judgement.

The judgements given in each case were recorded and kept and became what was called 'case law'. Magistrates could look up case law and find out what judgements had been given in similar cases in the past. Such a judgement in the past was called a precedent. In the early sixth century the Eastern emperor Justinian had all the precedents and laws since the Twelve Tables, nearly 1,000 years, studied, grouped together and copied out. This process is called codifying laws and therefore this body of law became known as the Justinian Code. This Code has influenced all European countries. The Napoleonic Code in France was based on it. Germany used Roman law if there was no







Roads from the Capitol building, U.S.A.

local precedent until a national law was drawn up in 1900. In England the Common Law is very important. This is a system of law based on English precedents based on English custom. Nevertheless Roman ideas and ways have been followed. In the U.S.A. the state of Louisiana has some laws which come straight from the Justinian Code which date from the time when the state was ruled by the French.

Roman architecture has also had a great influence on Europe. Roman builders had developed the arch, first into a long tunnel-like structure, called a barrel vault. Then they developed a groined vault by joining two of these at right angles. The importance of the groined vault was that only parts of the walls carried the weight of the roof, so that the rest could be much thinner and have windows cut in them. All the church building styles of medieval Europe are developments of this idea.

In the eighteenth century the so-called 'Classical' style of architecture was a copy of Greek-Roman styles of architecture. The Roman idea of important buildings in open spaces with wide, impressive roads for ceremonies has been copied: Pall Mall in London, and Constitution Mall and the Capitol in Washington, D.C. are examples.

## *SUMMARY*

Roman ideas were carried on by the Eastern Empire and Church and copied by the barbarians who took Roman titles and methods of government. — The Eastern Empire was influenced by the Greeks but considered itself Roman. — The Church carefully preserved the language and writings of the Romans, the barbarians eventually set up the Holy Roman Empire. — Roman law, codified by Justinian, and Roman methods of building had a great influence on western Europe and America.

Yeavinger, capital of Edwin of Northumberland





# **The Development of Western Civilization**

**PART II**

**Nigel Heard** *PhD(Hull)*

EUROPE and the MEDITERRANEAN

c 500





## Section 7: A NEW EUROPE

### CHAPTER 1: EUROPE IN THE DARK AGES

By the end of the sixth century Europe had just begun to recover from the effects of the barbarian invasions, but it was a very different Europe. Gone was the order of the Roman Empire and, by comparison, there was confusion everywhere. Small kingdoms had replaced the single government of Rome, and they were constantly quarrelling with their neighbours. The new nations had different languages and customs, and, at first, religions. In spite of this disunity there were several things which would in time unite Europe, and the most important of these was Christianity.

After the fall of Rome, it had seemed that Catholic Christianity would disappear under the influence of northern invaders who caused the Pope, the 'bishop of Rome', to lose most of his power. The situation changed in 496 when Clovis, King of the Franks and conqueror of Gaul and Germany, became a Catholic. The Frankish Kingdom became the largest and strongest of the new states in Europe, and the Pope looked upon it as a protector of the Church. Gradually, other barbarians became converted to Catholicism and the Pope regained some of his old power and authority. The position of the Catholics improved still further when the Byzantines, under Justinian, reconquered North Africa, Italy and part of Spain from the Vandals and Goths. The Emperor Justinian was anxious for a united Christian empire, and the Pope became important, both as a religious leader, and as the emperor's regent in Rome.

In northern Europe the position was not so hopeful. The Anglo-Saxons retained their old religious beliefs. Their cousins, the Saxons of north-east Germany, also remained unconverted and were a fierce people, constantly at war with the Christian Franks. Already another warlike people, the Norsemen, had settled in Scandinavia. An active race of sailors and farmers, the Norsemen clung strongly to their beliefs in the old war gods.

Also, to the east, the German and *Slavonic* tribes were not Christian so that the position of the Catholics in Europe was not very secure. After the death of Justinian, weak leadership undermined the strength of the Byzantine Empire and it became threatened by attacks from Persia and from the Slavs. In order to fight off these attacks, troops were withdrawn from garrisons stationed in Italy. It was at this time that another northern group, a *nomadic* German tribe called *Lombards*, invaded Italy and conquered most of the northern and central plains. The Byzantines still held southern Italy and the eastern coast around their capital of Ravenna, but Rome was in danger of falling to the invaders.

Just when Catholic Christianity was in danger of disappearing, a new Pope was elected. Pope Gregory was a very capable man and an excellent leader. He was able to restore peace and began to convert the Lombards to Christianity. He also sent his friend Augustine to convert the English, and he restored good relations with the Franks.

By the seventh century, the nations of Europe were united by a single Catholic Church which organized Europe into provinces and dioceses in the same way as in the Roman Empire. The clergy used Latin in church and as their normal everyday language. The peoples of Europe spoke many different languages but Latin became the language which could be understood by everyone. The clergy were often the only educated group and became responsible for education, or employed as government officials, preparing written documents in Latin. The sons of kings and nobles were educated by the Church, and Latin became the tongue of the upper classes, allowing clergy, scholars and the nobles to travel all over Europe and be understood in different countries.

Other aspects of Roman civilization began to re-emerge. Towns were rebuilt and the fine system of Roman roads began to be used again as a unifying link throughout Europe. Such unifying links were important as Europe became threatened again, this time by Norsemen in the north and Moslems in the south.

In Arabia a new religion emerged, led by a camel driver named Mohammed who came from the town of Mecca. He taught the Arabs that there was only one true God, Allah. The priests of the old religions did not like this and in 622 they drove him from Mecca. This flight was called the *Hegira*, and the Moslems date their years from this

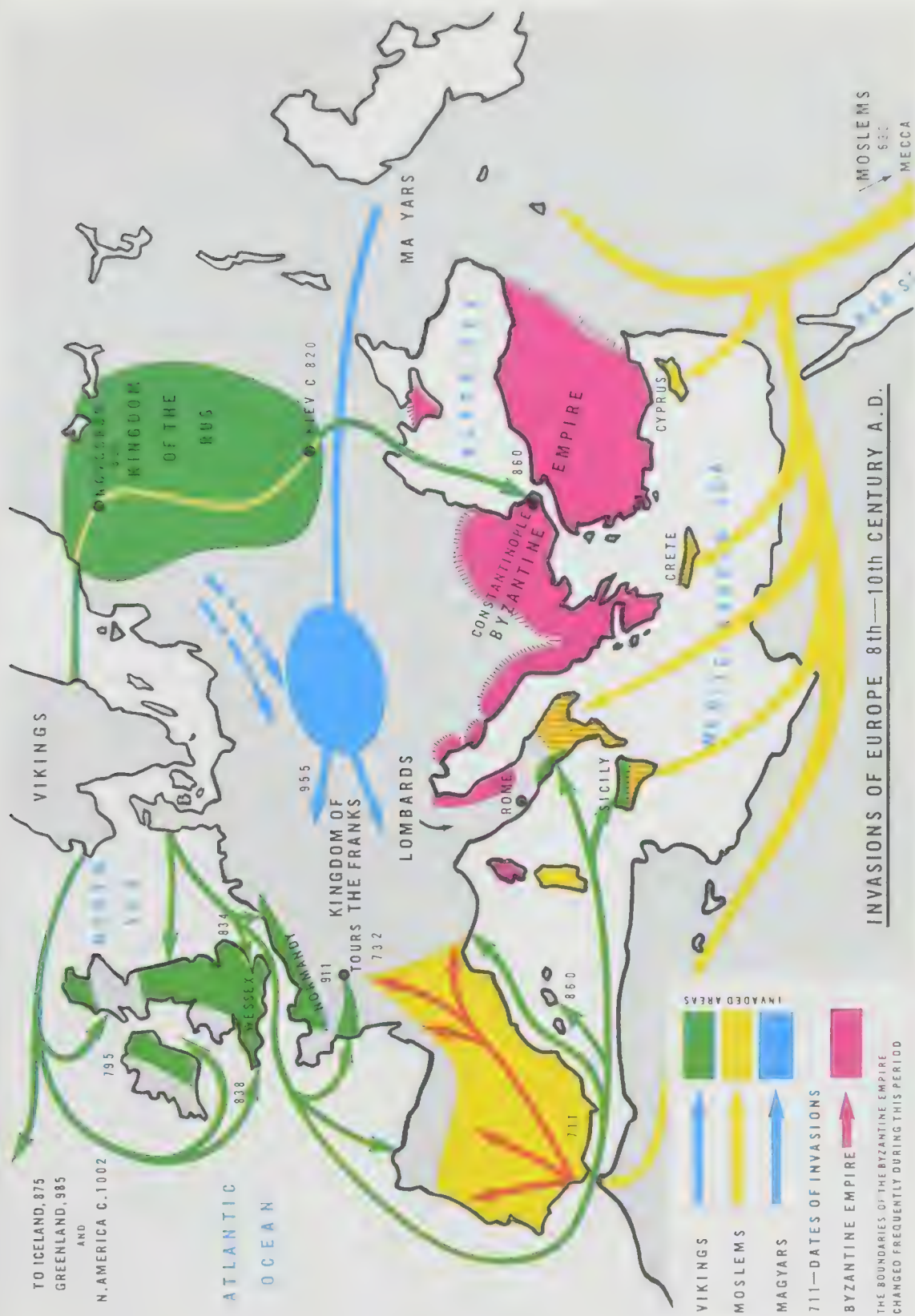




## BYZANTINE TRADE ROUTES IN THE 7TH CENTURY

A 12th-century wall painting from the monastery of Nerezi







event in the same way that we date our years from the birth of Christ. In 630 Mohammed returned and conquered Mecca, and soon *Islam* became the strongest religion in Arabia. When Mohammed died his friends collected his teachings and wrote them down in the *Koran*, which became their equivalent of the Christian Bible.

The Moslems were aggressive in spreading their religion, and soon began to conquer the countries around Arabia. They took Syria and Palestine from the Byzantines, overran Mesopotamia, Persia and Egypt, thus gaining control of the eastern Mediterranean, and finally conquered the remainder of the North African coast. During this campaign, the Byzantine fleet was destroyed giving the Moslems control of the sea. Finally, after being invited over to Spain to help the Visigoths in a civil war, the Moslems conquered Spain and began to move into France. The Moslem advance into Europe was halted at Tours, where the Franks under Charles Martel won a decisive battle which saved most of Europe from Moslem conquest. Only Spain remained in Moslem hands, but the struggle between Christian Europe and the empire of Islam was to last until the seventeenth century.

Charles Martel's victory over the Moslems made his family especially important. His son Pepin became King of the Franks, and helped the Pope defeat the Lombards who were then forced to give their lands to the Pope as Papal States.

When Pepin died, his son Charles became King. He was a great leader and because of his conquests became known as Charles the Great or Charlemagne. Charlemagne gained control over his rebelling nobles, quelled an uprising of the Lombards, defeated the Saxons, and pushed the Moslems back into Spain. Charlemagne added Lombardy and north Italy to his Frankish Kingdom, making it into an empire larger than the Byzantine Empire. He was a wise and capable ruler, governing his lands well, helping the spread of Christianity and fostering education. In the year 800, Charlemagne was crowned Emperor of the West by the Pope, and most of Europe was united for the first time since the barbarian invasions.

At the same time England became united. When the country became Christian, there had been seven small kingdoms. Gradually the smaller kingdoms were conquered by their neighbours. For a time Northumbria was the chief kingdom, but by the end of the eighth century Mercia became supreme under King Offa. After Offa's

death, Wessex gained control of the whole of England, but not for long. England and the whole of Europe was threatened by another enemy – the Vikings.

Scandinavia had remained outside the framework of Europe. The people were not converted to Christianity, and lived in a land which had a deeply fiorded coastline and very little farmland. The Scandinavian people turned to the sea as a way of feeding their families, and, as the country became overcrowded, many men went off in search of new lands, and so began the Viking invasions. At first the Viking longships attacked small settlements along the coast. Later, however, large fleets were assembled and whole armies of well-trained and aggressive men began to terrorize Europe.

Of these Scandinavian people the *Danes* had more effect on Europe than the *Swedes* or *Norwegians*. Sweden faces eastward and it was natural for the Swedes to follow routes across the Baltic Sea and along rivers which penetrated into Russia and down to the Black Sea. They gained control of the important trade routes between the north and Constantinople, and built important trading centres at Novgorod and Kiev. The fair-haired Swedes were called 'rus' by the peoples of Europe and their new Kingdom became known as Russia. The Norwegians, another Viking group, faced north-west and Norwegian fleets explored the Atlantic, establishing colonies in Scotland, Ireland, Iceland, and Greenland. It was settlers from Greenland who made the first voyages to North America at the end of the ninth century.

The Danes, however, turned their attention to finding new lands in Europe. After Charlemagne's death, his empire was divided among his grandsons. Attacks by eastern tribes (Magyars and Hungarians) and the lack of unity in the divided Europe allowed the Danes to penetrate along the sea coast and into northern France which became known as Normandy. The Danes also pushed into eastern England until they were stopped by King Alfred the Great. Alfred was forced to allow the Danes to keep the north-east which became known as the Danelaw, but gradually this area was reconquered and England united. In 1066 William, Duke of Normandy, and Harold, King of Norway, invaded England over a dispute as to who had the best claim to the throne. The Norwegians were easily defeated but the Normans conquered England, and William became King.

In Germany Otto the Great became King in 936. He united Germany and conquered northern Italy, and in return for his help, the



Pope made him Holy Roman Emperor. His empire was not as large as that of Charlemagne, but it lasted until 1806.

By the eleventh century, the Dark Ages had ended. Strong rulers in England, France, and Germany brought a measure of security to Europe. The power of the Moslems was declining and Europe was able to trade with the Near East again, bringing wealth into Europe which had not been seen since the fall of Rome. Medieval civilization had begun.

### *SUMMARY*

The Church brought unity to Europe under the leadership of the Pope who was supported by the Franks. —The Moslem threat to Europe ended at Tours, and Charlemagne became the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in the West which united most of Europe.—England was united by the Kings of Wessex. —Although the Vikings threatened Europe, the Danes were defeated in England by Alfred the Great.—A strong line of Kings appeared in England, France, and Germany bringing unity and prosperity which ended the Dark Ages in Europe.

Fortified towns in 14th-century Italy



## CHAPTER 2: THE FEUDAL SYSTEM IN EUROPE

After the fall of the Roman Empire in western Europe life became very dangerous. During the Dark Ages there was constant fighting and danger of invasion by other nations. The barbarian chieftains and their followers fought each other as they tried to conquer land for themselves. During the fighting towns and villages were burnt down, and the crops growing in the fields were destroyed. The peasants often had their huts burnt down, and their food stolen. If they were not killed in the fighting, the peasants either starved, or were forced to work for one of the conquering tribes.

Even when the barbarians had settled down and become Christians, life was not very safe. Spain, Sicily and Italy were invaded by the Moslems, and in the ninth century northern Europe was attacked by the Vikings. So ferocious were the Viking raids that even Charlemagne's empire broke down, and all western Europe suffered in the fighting. During the tenth century feudalism had become the main means of government in western Europe. It did not, however, appear suddenly, but developed slowly as the kings in the West failed to defend their countries.

Each kingdom had slightly different types of feudalism. The break-up of Charlemagne's empire (see p. 213) caused great confusion in

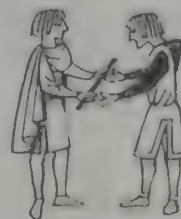
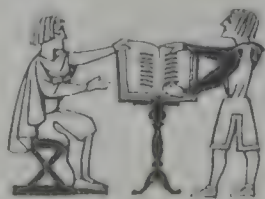
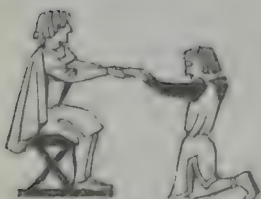




France and Germany, so that knights and peasants needed the protection of powerful nobles. This made the nobles stronger and weakened the kings. In England feudalism had been made a matter of personal loyalty to a chieftain, or *thegn*, but in Europe it was a military agreement between tenant and overlord. After 1066 William brought military feudalism to England, and used it to make himself stronger (see p. 213). Soon everyone had to have an overlord except the king. The nobles had to help their overlords in time of war, while the peasants had to do some form of manual labour in return for protection. Feudalism did not develop in areas such as Italy where the inhabitants lived in cities and were interested in trade not farming.

Another great problem faced by the barbarian kings was lack of gold and silver. The Romans had been rich through the enormous trade with Africa and the Near East which brought bullion into Europe. With the fall of the Western Empire trade almost ceased and with it the circulation of gold and silver. The western European mines did not produce enough precious metal to give the new kingdoms the wealth they needed. Without money the kings could not pay officials to run the government, nor could they pay for large armies to defend the country. In any case very few people could read or write, except for those who had been educated by the Church. This meant that only the clergy could keep accounts, and so the kings and the barons had to pay clerks to look after their affairs. The payment of these clerks, soldiers and any other official was difficult without money. The answer to the problem was land. Both kings and barons owned large estates, so they divided up their land into smaller estates and gave them to their officials and followers instead of money. In this way the idea of feudalism to protect the weak, and as a way to pay for services, began to spread all over Europe.

A vassal (tenant) receiving his fief (the tenure of his land)





An improved iron plough (from a 13th-century manuscript)

By the twelfth century feudalism was being used in every European country. The king, as ruler of the country, was the head of the system, and all the nation from the greatest baron to the poorest peasant, recognized him as their overlord. All the land in a kingdom belonged to the king, and all landowners had to pay homage to the monarch for their estates. They were, also, expected to help the king by supplying him with soldiers in wartime, collecting taxes and keeping the peace in their own parts of the country. In many cases the barons owned more land than the king, who, often, only controlled a small area of his kingdom around the royal capital. If these great landowners lived a long way from the king, they could ignore the royal government completely, and rule their estates as petty kings. In any case, parts of Germany and France had been conquered by the barons themselves, and they did not think that the king had any power over these lands. To the peasants the local landowner was much more important than a king, whom they most likely never saw. It was the landowner and his soldiers who protected them, and collected their taxes. If they had any grievances, or had been guilty of a crime, peasants had to go to the local court, which was held by the landowner, or one of his officials. Thus for most people the king had little importance, and the barons were their main contact with the outside world.

The best example of a feudal country was England after the Norman Conquest. William the Conqueror had been duke of Normandy before 1066, and had been a *vassal* of the king of France. As the French kings were not very powerful, William was able to rule Normandy as he pleased, and went to war with France several times when the king tried to intervene in William's lands. After William had conquered England, he wanted to make sure that none of his own vassals became too powerful. As William had conquered the country, he did



actually own all the land, and took care that none of the estates were too large. Only on the Scottish and Welsh borders were the estates of any size. In these areas trusted barons were given considerable power to protect the country from Scottish or Welsh invasions.

English feudalism can best be described as a pyramid, with the king at the top and the peasants at the bottom. After the Conquest, William divided England into estates, taking the land from the Saxons and giving it to his own followers. The barons who held land direct from the king were called tenants-in-chief. Just as the king could not afford to pay his barons, so they did not have enough money to pay their own followers. Consequently they had to divide up their estates, and let out some of the land to lesser barons and knights. The main duty of these military classes was to serve the king in wartime. (Even when land was given to bishops and monasteries, the churchmen had to provide soldiers for the royal army.) They were, also, expected to make certain payments to the king called aids. These were collected on special occasions such as royal weddings, or to pay the king's ransom if he was captured in battle, as in the case of Richard I (see p. 227). Such aids had to be paid by sub-tenants to the tenants-in-chief. The nobles were expected to advise the king. Normally only a select few formed the King's Council, but at Easter and Whitsun the king held *Crown Wearings*, when all the nobles could attend to advise their monarch.

## THE FEUDAL MANOR

The manor was the smallest but most important part of the feudal system. Manors varied in size. There might be several villages in a large manor, or a village could be divided between several manors.

The rights and duties of overlord and tenant

## THE FEUDAL PYRAMID

### THE CONTRACT CREATED BY RECIPROCAL OBLIGATIONS

#### The overlord should:

- Protect his vassal, see that he receives justice.
- Keep the integrity of the fief.

#### The vassal should:

- Advise the overlord, with the other vassals, in his court.
- Make payments (called aids) to the overlord:
  - on the marriage of the overlord's daughter,
  - if the overlord's elder son joins the cavalry,
  - if the overlord is captured.

### THE CONTRACT CEASES

- if the overlord or the vassal dies,
- if the overlord or the vassal does not perform his duties.





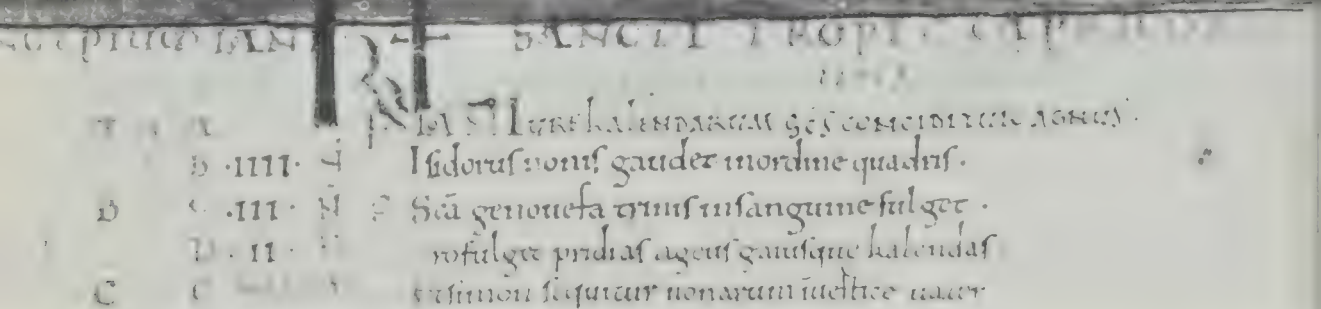
Bringing grain to the watermill

There were thousands of manors in England, and the military classes from the king to the knight relied on their manors for food and money. The king and rich barons would own manors all over the country, while a poor knight might have only one. The lord of the manor expected the peasants, or villagers, to farm his land, and in return it was his duty to protect them and their homes from danger.

The peasant had to work on the land, and because farming was so important he was not allowed to leave his village. Because he was not free to move, a peasant was called a serf, and lived very like a slave. There were three classes of serfs. The villeins were the most important, holding up to thirty acres of land. The bordars held between ten and fifteen acres, while the cottars had only a cottage and a small plot of land.

During the Middle Ages the population of England did not rise above four million, so that there were seldom more than a hundred people living on a manor. The villages were usually built by a river, near a ford or a bridge. The only stone buildings were the lord's manor-house and the church. The villagers lived in one-roomed cottages built of wood and thatch. They had very little furniture, and slept on rushes on the floor. The fire was in the middle of the floor, the smoke escaping through a hole in the roof. These *hovels* were grouped around the village green and the church, the manor-house standing apart. The village was surrounded by thick woodland, through which





wound rough earthen tracks which connected the villages and towns, except where one of the Roman roads was still used.

Around each village were three large open-fields, which were divided into strips 22 yards wide and 220 yards long. Each villein family would own about thirty of these strips in each of the three fields. Bordars and cottars had less land. The rest of the land was held by the lord of the manor, and was called the demesne. Each family was expected to work three days a week on the demesne, to pay for their land. At sowing and harvest time the serfs had to work extra days, called *boon work*. The demesne was expected to feed the lord's family when they visited the manor.

For the rest of the week the villagers worked on their own land to grow enough food to feed them for the year. Everything needed on the manor had to be produced by the villagers, and each village had its own blacksmith, potter and shoemaker. The methods of farming were very primitive, and one of the three fields had to be left *fallow* every year to regain fertility. The soil was quickly exhausted because the peasants grew corn and beans every year, and did not plant root-crops to rest the land. The peasants also kept oxen, cattle, horses, sheep, pigs and

chickens, which were grazed on the common grasslands. These animals could only be fed during the summer, because there was not enough hay for winter fodder. Every autumn most of the animals were killed, and the meat salted down to be eaten during the winter. Beyond the grassland were the uncleared woodlands, where pigs were grazed (*pannage*), and the villagers could collect firewood.

The lord of the manor usually left his *bailiff* to look after his land. He organized the lives of the peasants through the manor-court. The bailiff and a group of senior villagers met to judge any small crimes, charge fines, and decide how the farm land should be used. The villagers were very poor, and could save little money, but they had to pay several feudal dues, or taxes. It cost them a penny to have their corn ground at the lord's mill. When a peasant married he had to pay a fine to the lord, and when the head of a family died, his son had to pay a *heriot*, of his best beast, before he could inherit the family land. Every year a tenth of the peasants' crops were paid to the parish priest to repair the church.

#### THE VALUE OF FEUDALISM

Feudalism had come into force because of the breakdown of strong government and trade during the Dark Ages. The need for military protection placed the nobility in a strong position, because they gained great power and influence over their own tenants at the expense of the king. In the same way the Church offered protection to the weak, and the hope of salvation in an uncertain world. For this reason both poor and rich gave money and land to the Church and the monasteries, and soon bishops and abbots became great landowners in their own right. Sometimes such land was given free of any feudal service, but often the bishops and abbots had to provide troops for the king or

The work of medieval peasants





tenants-in-chief. In many cases they led their own troops into battle, especially in times of national danger. The weakness of the kings and the strength of the nobles created a constant threat of civil war, but feudalism gave protection and government where, otherwise, none would have existed.

The disappearance of trade and town life in many parts of the West made land extremely important. The great shortage of gold and silver would have made government extremely difficult had it not been possible to reward services with grants of land. Only when the towns and trade began to revive in the eleventh century (see p. 263) did feudalism begin to lose its importance.

### SUMMARY

Insecurity and the decline of trade made land important.—Medieval government became based upon feudalism, and the manor was essential to provide food for the nobility.—Despite its disadvantages feudalism was the only means of government and protection.



## Section 8: THE WORLD IN THE ELEVENTH TO THE THIRTEENTH CENTURIES

### CHAPTER 1: THE CRUSADES

By the eleventh century Christian Europe was strong enough to attack the Moslem lands in Palestine. The Arabs had steadily grown weaker, and early in the eleventh century Palestine and Asia Minor



THE KNOWN WORLD IN THE 10TH CENTURY



were conquered by the Seljuk Turks. Previously Christians had been allowed to visit Jerusalem and the Holy Places, but the Seljuks refused to allow pilgrims into Palestine. The Byzantine emperor was alarmed by the Seljuk conquests and asked the Pope to send help from the West. Pope Urban II preached a crusade, or Holy War, to free the Holy Land from the Moslems.

"Oh, race of Franks, race from across the mountains, race chosen and beloved by God. . . . To you our discourse is addressed, and for you our exhortation is intended. We wish you to know what a grievous cause has led us to your country, what peril, threatening you and all the faithful, has brought us.

"From the confines of Jerusalem and the city of Constantinople a horrible tale has gone forth and very frequently has been brought to our ears; namely, that a race from the kingdom of the Persians, an accursed race, a race utterly alienated from God, a generation, forsooth, which has neither directed its heart nor entrusted its spirit to God, has invaded the lands of those Christians and has depopulated them by the sword, pillage, and fire; it has led away a part of the captives into its own country, and a part it has destroyed by cruel tortures; it has either entirely destroyed the churches of God or appropriated them for the rites of its own religion. . . .

"Let the deeds of your ancestors move you and incite your minds to manly achievements; likewise, the glory and greatness of King Charles the Great, and his son Louis, and of your other kings, who have destroyed the kingdoms of the pagans, and have extended in these lands the territory of the Holy Church. . . .

"However, if you are hindered by love of children, parents, and wives, remember what the Lord says in the Gospel. 'He that loveth father or mother, more than me, is not worthy of me.' 'Every one that hath forsaken houses, or brethren, or sisters, or father, or mother, or wife, or children, or lands for my name's sake shall receive an hundred-fold and shall inherit everlasting life.' Let none of your possessions detain you, no solicitude for your family affairs, since this land which you inhabit, shut in on all sides by the sea and surrounded by mountain peaks, is too narrow for your large population; nor does it abound in wealth; and it furnishes scarcely food enough for its cultivators. Hence it is that you murder and devour one another, that you wage war, and that frequently you perish by mutual wounds. Let therefore hatred depart from among you, let your quarrels end, let wars cease, and let all dissensions and controversies slumber. Enter upon the road to the Holy Sepulchre; wrest that land from the wicked race, and subject it to yourselves. That land which, as the Scripture says, 'floweth with milk and honey'. . . ."

Those present were so influenced by these words that they all cried out, "God wills it! God wills it!" Hearing this, Pope Urban gave thanks to God and said:

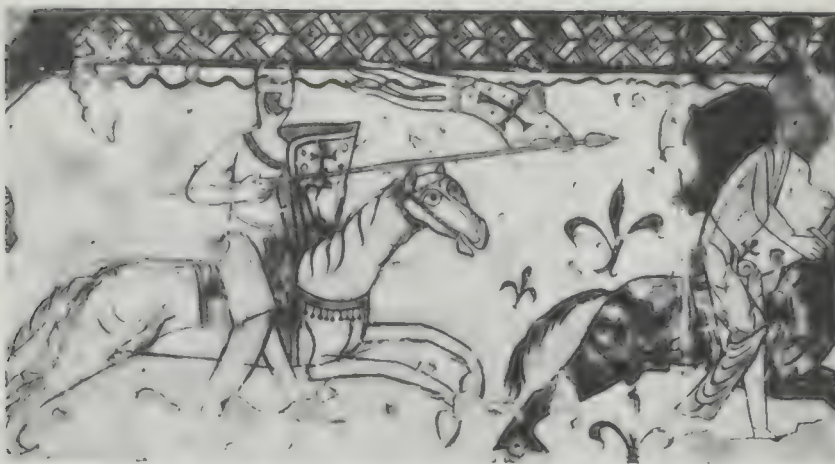
"Most beloved brethren. . . Unless the Lord God had been present in your minds, all of you would not have uttered the same cry. . . Let this then be your battle-cry in combat. . . When an armed attack is made upon the enemy, let this one cry be raised by all the soldiers of God: 'God wills it! God wills it!'. . .

"Whoever, therefore, shall determine upon this holy pilgrimage and shall make his vow to God to that effect and shall offer himself to Him as a living sacrifice, holy, acceptable unto God, shall wear the sign of the cross of the Lord on his forehead, or on his breast. When, having truly fulfilled his vow, he wishes to return, let him place the cross on his back between his shoulders. Such, indeed, by two-fold action will fulfil the precept of the Lord, as He commands in the Gospel, 'He that doth not take his cross and follow after me, is not worthy of me'."



Krak des Chevaliers: a castle of the Knights Hospitallers in Palestine



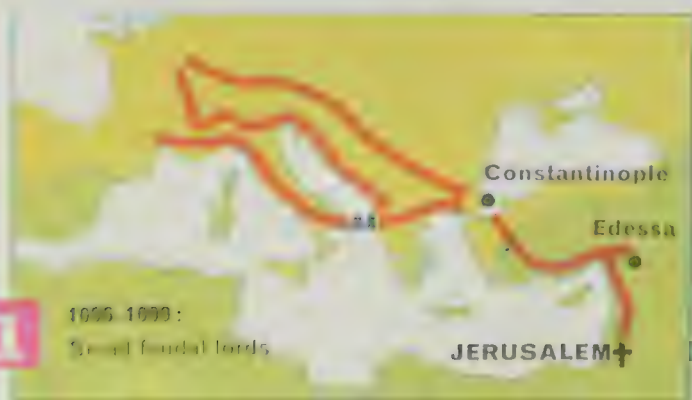


A 13th-century wall painting showing a crusader

The kings of Europe were too busy with their own affairs to care about the Crusade, but the princes were anxious to win land and glory for themselves. There were many landless men willing to follow the princes in the hopes of finding riches in the East. So great was the response to Urban's appeal, that he found it difficult to control the men and organize the expedition. It seemed that the crusaders would never leave Europe. Fortunately the cities of Italy were eager to gain control of Eastern trade and offered to give ships to transport the armies to Greece.

The troubles did not end there. The Byzantines had hoped for a small, professional army which they could use against the Seljuks. Instead, there arrived a great host of men eager to gain land for themselves. By 1097 the main Seljuk army had been defeated and the crusaders were able to capture several important cities. Finally, in 1099, Jerusalem was taken, and another large Moslem army was defeated at Ascalon. The Holy Land had been freed. The crusaders established several small states, which became known as the Latin Kingdom, under the control of the King of Jerusalem.

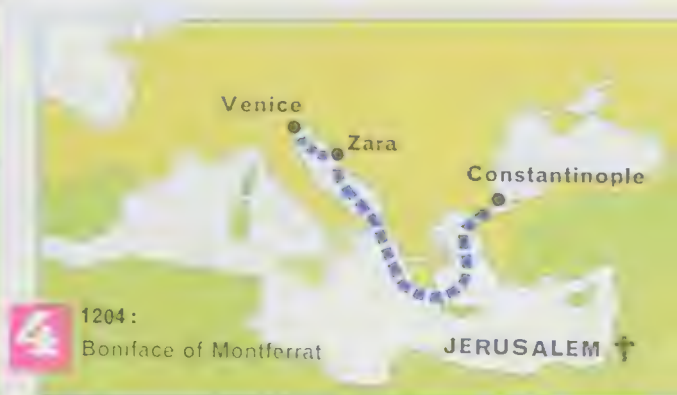
#### THE ROUTES USED BY THE FIRST FOUR CRUSADES



At first there were strong hopes that this was but the first step towards the complete defeat of the Moslems. A steady stream of volunteers went to the Latin Kingdom and the Church created the Orders of the Knights Templar and Knights Hospitallers to help fight the Seljuks, but the early hopes were doomed to failure. Far from home, the crusaders grew idle and careless, while the Moslems became more determined to reconquer Palestine. Eventually the Seljuks recaptured part of Asia Minor, and another crusade was organized, led by the kings of Germany and France. This was a complete failure as the two kings quarrelled and the enthusiasm for crusades grew less. Then in 1187 Jerusalem itself fell once again to the Moslems, and the kings of England, France and Germany raised armies and went to free Jerusalem. The German king was killed on the march and his army went home. The English and the French kings were jealous of each other and spent their time arguing. Finally the French went home and Richard the Lion Heart, King of England, had to abandon his plans after he had won great fame as a soldier.

The West was never to regain control of Palestine although there were many other attempts to recapture Jerusalem. Even the children of Europe raised an army which reached Asia Minor before disbanding. (This is supposed to be the story behind the legend of the Pied Piper of Hamelin.) Gradually enthusiasm faded and crusades became something which were talked about but never came to anything. Despite their failure the crusades made very important changes to civilization in Europe.

The Popes became more important as they had gained great prestige from the early successes of the crusades, while the kings had been blamed for all the failures. The importance of the Pope gave the Church a highly privileged position in medieval society, until both the Popes and the clergy became lazy and inefficient during the fifteenth century. At the same time the Byzantine empire, which had once again been the main Christian defence against the Moslems, had been weakened and its collapse had become inevitable.





The crusades had also broadened the outlook of Europeans and this brought many changes. The Italian cities had succeeded in gaining control of the Mediterranean trade and were able to bring the silks, spices, carpets, glass and other luxuries of the East to Europe. Men who had been to Palestine were impressed with some aspects of life in the East. They were no longer content with their draughty and uncomfortable castles and manor houses and demanded the luxuries of the East. These new demands increased trade and in due course improved industry as Western craftsmen began to copy the styles of the East.

Perhaps even more important than these changes was the growth in ideas. Having met Orthodox Christians in Constantinople many people began to think more about religion, and although this was not always popular with the Popes, it did widen Western thought. At the same time Greek scholars came to Europe bringing important new manuscripts which introduced Greek, Byzantine and Moslem ideas about science, mathematics, medicine, and astronomy. One of the things which awed the crusaders was the buildings and art of the East. New methods and styles of buildings were introduced into Europe which greatly improved the standard of architecture in the Western Mediterranean. The artistic styles and skills of the Greeks and Byzantines were widely admired and copied, especially in Italy, and the first steps had been made which were to lead to the sixteenth-century Renaissance.

### *SUMMARY*

The First Crusade was organized to free the Holy Land from the Seljuk Turks. The Latin Kingdom gradually grew weaker and the Mohammedans recaptured Jerusalem. Later crusades were failures. The crusades had important results in the West. Trade increased and living standards rose. There were new ideas about science, mathematics, building, and art.

# CHAPTER 2: THE NEAR EAST

## BYZANTINE GOVERNMENT AND THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE

Byzantine government was a mixture of Roman and Eastern ideas of administration, but had been carefully adapted to Christian ideas. The emperor was the head of the government, but, unlike the old Roman emperors, was not worshipped as a god. Instead he was looked upon as God's representative, and was responsible for the religious well-being of his subjects. For this reason the ceremonies of the Court were mainly religious. An example of this was that the left-hand side of the imperial throne was dedicated to Christ, and the emperor could only sit there when receiving ambassadors.

In theory the emperor was elected by the people, but in practice each emperor named his successor with the approval of the army. Often to avoid disputes there were several emperors at the same time. The senior emperor was called autocrator and had all the power, while his co-emperors were just there in case he died suddenly. The emperor was crowned by the Patriarch, although directly he was crowned he became the Patriarch's religious superior. The religious importance of the emperor set him apart from his subjects, and the Sacred Palace

Moslem architecture: part of the Court of Lions in the Alhambra, Granada



Moslem architecture: the dome of the mosque at Tlemcen







A 6th-century Byzantine icon

with its Court and ceremonies was revered by the people. One of the emperor's main duties was to administer the Church and protect the Orthodox religion throughout the empire. In matters of State the emperor was all powerful and his word was law. Roman law was still used in the courts, but was brought up to date at intervals. There were both Church and lay courts of law for all types of criminals, but it became common for Church officials to administer both types of court.

The emperor appointed his own ministers as he chose and could dismiss them *at-will*. This ensured that they did exactly what they were told and did not become too powerful. The elected senate had become unimportant, and all its power had passed to the emperor. The actual administration was carried out by a very large and efficient civil service, which had become divided into many departments, each with

its own duties. The language of the Court and civil service was Greek, which is why the Byzantines were called Greeks by Europeans. The emperor was responsible for the army, appointing the generals and high ranking officers. The army was very important because of the empire's long frontiers and many enemies. Until the eleventh century the army was recruited and paid by the State, but during the twelfth



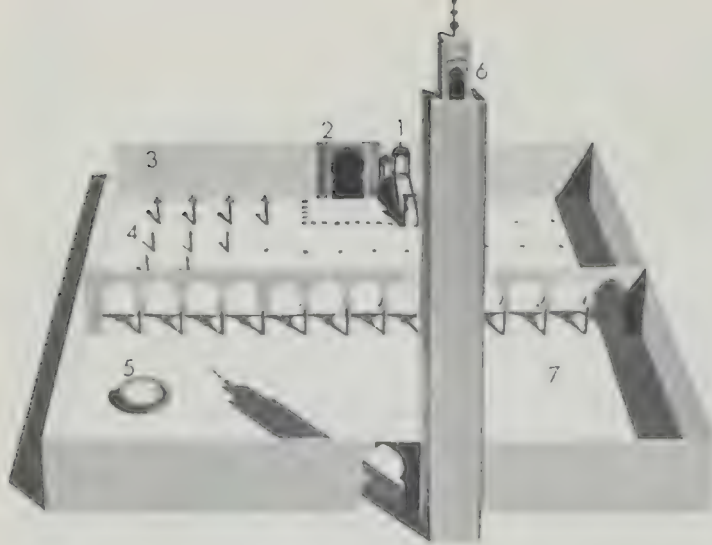
An Islamic illuminated manuscript of the 13th century



PLAN OF CONSTANTINOPLE

- Wall of Constantine
- Wall of Theodosius (408-50)
- Imperial palace
- Hippodrome
- Senate
- St Sophia
- Capitol
- Cisterns





- 1 Minbar: a sort of pulpit from which the Immam reads the Koran
- 2 Mirbab: painted alcove showing the exact direction of Mecca
- 3 Wall of Qibla
- 4 Oratory: praying room
- 5 Fountains for the ritual ablutions: no one may enter the Mosque without washing
- 6 Minaret: from the top of this tower the Muezzin reminds the Moslems of their duty to pray
- 7 Sahn: courtyard

Plan of a Moslem mosque

century the great landowners and their followers were responsible for defending the frontiers. In Constantinople the emperor had the Varangian Guard and a small army of imperial troops and police for protection. Until the twelfth century the navy was very important, but after 1204 the State could no longer afford to build ships, and often had to hire Italian ships to keep pirates away from Constantinople.

The Byzantine emperors had divided their lands into provinces ruled by governors as in the old Roman Empire. As they grew weaker, however, the provinces disappeared, and local government was left to great landowners in much the same way as it was left to the feudal nobles in the West. These landowners became very powerful and often fought against the emperor, until 1204 when the crusaders, helped by the Italian fleets, captured Constantinople and divided the empire among themselves. The new rulers, however, were weak and quarrelsome, and the former princes soon reconquered most of their lands.

At first the new empire was divided between two royal families, both of which claimed descent from the old emperors. At last Michael of Nicaea succeeded in reuniting the empire in 1259. Although Byzantium continued to exist until 1453 it was never as rich and powerful again, and was organized much like the feudal kingdoms in Europe.

Until its decline Constantinople had held a position of the greatest importance. The city had been the main commercial centre in the Mediterranean, the point where the trade of East and West met. The enormous wealth of the Byzantine empire came from this flourishing trade. At the same time Constantinople was the Christian

centre in the Near East and the main defence against the Moslem advance. The Byzantines were Orthodox Christians and the people of the West were Catholic Christians. At this time, there was never any great trust between the religions. It was from Constantinople that the Churches of Greece and Russia developed.

The enormous wealth of the empire permitted the maintenance of a large army and the development of an efficient government. This meant that the people had peace and noblemen could afford to employ craftsmen, artists and scholars to beautify their palaces and houses and to build up large libraries where scholars were able to study the accumulated knowledge of the ancient world.

#### THE MOSLEM EMPIRES

After the eleventh century the Moslem empires began to change as they became weaker. The Arabs lost control of the Mediterranean and the Christian Kingdoms in Spain began to recover their lost territories.

As the caliphs, the name given to Moslem rulers, grew less able, the empire broke up into several parts. The Seljuk Turks, united under the Sultan Tughril, began to conquer Asia Minor. Although the crusaders broke up their new kingdom, the Seljuks were later reunited by Saladin, who conquered the Latin Kingdom and built a large empire. When Saladin died there was a long series of civil wars which left the Moslem lands weak until they were conquered by the Ottoman Turks in the fifteenth century.

At the same time that the Moslem empire was crumbling in the East, the caliphs in Spain were losing their power, and the country became divided into several small kingdoms. While the Moslems had been powerful they had treated their Christian subjects very well, but their growing fear of the Christians made them ill-treat all the non-Moslems. This gave the Christian kings of the north of Spain a very good excuse to reconquer their country, but at first the kingdoms of Castile, Aragon and Navarre were small and mistrusted each other even more than the Moslems, so that progress was very slow. The wars consisted of small border raids which gained little for either side, and the Moslems were able to call in help from North Africa whenever the Christians appeared to be gaining the upper hand.

This was one of the very romantic periods of Spanish history.





St Sophia, Istanbul, once the centre of orthodox Christianity and later a mosque

Famous knights came from all over Europe to join in the crusades against the *moors*, and the great El Cid became the country's national hero. Eventually in 1212 Alfonso VIII of Castile won a resounding victory at Las Navas, and the Christians made a rapid advance. The kingdom of Portugal was formed in the west while Castile and Aragon made great gains in the south. However, the Christians could not drive the Moslems beyond the borders of the small kingdom of Granada in the south of Spain, which the Moslems held until the end of the fifteenth century.

### SUMMARY

The importance of the Byzantine emperors. — The efficiency of Byzantine government until its decline after 1204. — Constantinople's importance as a centre of trade, religion, and civilization. — The decline of Moslem power in Europe. — In Spain the Christian kingdoms began to reconquer their country from the Moslems. — North Africa remained under Moslem influence.

## CHAPTER 3: THE FAR EAST

### CHINA AND THE MONGOL INVASIONS

While these changes were taking place in the West, other changes were taking place in the East. China was the greatest empire in the East and the T'ang Dynasty (618–907) ruled lands outside of China, for example, in Korea and parts of Russia, and had a very efficient government run by civil servants who had to pass written examinations. The T'ang period was one of the greatest periods of Chinese art and literature – a period when landscape painting began, the printing press was invented and T'ang pottery and porcelain reached a standard never equalled in the West.

Chinese civilization was hundreds of years ahead of that in the West and ideas spread throughout the empire. Chinese merchants not only brought Buddhism to Japan but a knowledge of building, engineering, science, medicine and coinage. These merchants also introduced the Chinese system of writing, which allowed Japanese civilization to develop.

During the ninth century, civil war broke out and the T'ang Dynasty ended. It was replaced by the Sung Dynasty which ruled China from 960–1279. The Sung emperors controlled a smaller empire

Life in China during the Mongol Dynasty, as described by Marco Polo





than the T'angs, and north China became a separate country ruled by several Asiatic tribes who threatened to invade the south. Because of this threat, the Sung emperors moved their capital farther south to Hanchow.

One of the greatest handicaps to reform was the civil service which was opposed to any changes. Despite these difficulties the Sung emperors were able to improve the administration. One of the main problems was government expenditure. To reduce costs the size of the army was reduced, and a large militia, recruited from the peasants, was trained in case of invasion. As a means of increasing the revenue the government took control of all trade and overseas commerce, so that all profits went into the Treasury. To ensure that income and expenditure balanced annual budgets were introduced, and soon China's finances became more secure. This enabled further reforms. There was growing discontent among the peasants, because they were made to work for the State with little or no pay. This system of forced labour was abolished, and all peasants were paid fair wages. This caused trouble among the farmers who complained that they were paying increased rents and higher wages so that they were forced to borrow money at a high rate of interest. These complaints were solved when the government introduced State loans at very low interest rates.

The Sung Dynasty was another great period in Chinese civilization. The civil service and the army were streamlined, overseas trade was carefully controlled, balanced budgets were introduced and the government made low interest loans available to farmers. Painting during this period was the best in Chinese history, and pottery and porcelain reached a very high standard. In addition, several important technical developments took place. The art of printing was perfected using movable type; the Chinese discovered how to make gunpowder, and perhaps most important, the ship's compass was invented – an invention which did not reach Europe until the fifteenth century.

At this time the most powerful people in Asia were the Mongols, who were fierce warriors and agile horsemen. For a long time they had been split up into a number of tribes, but, when they were united by Ghengis Khan in the thirteenth century, they became a powerful fighting force. Soon the neighbouring peoples had been conquered and the Mongols attacked China, which was soon overrun except for a small area in the south. Had it not been for the death of



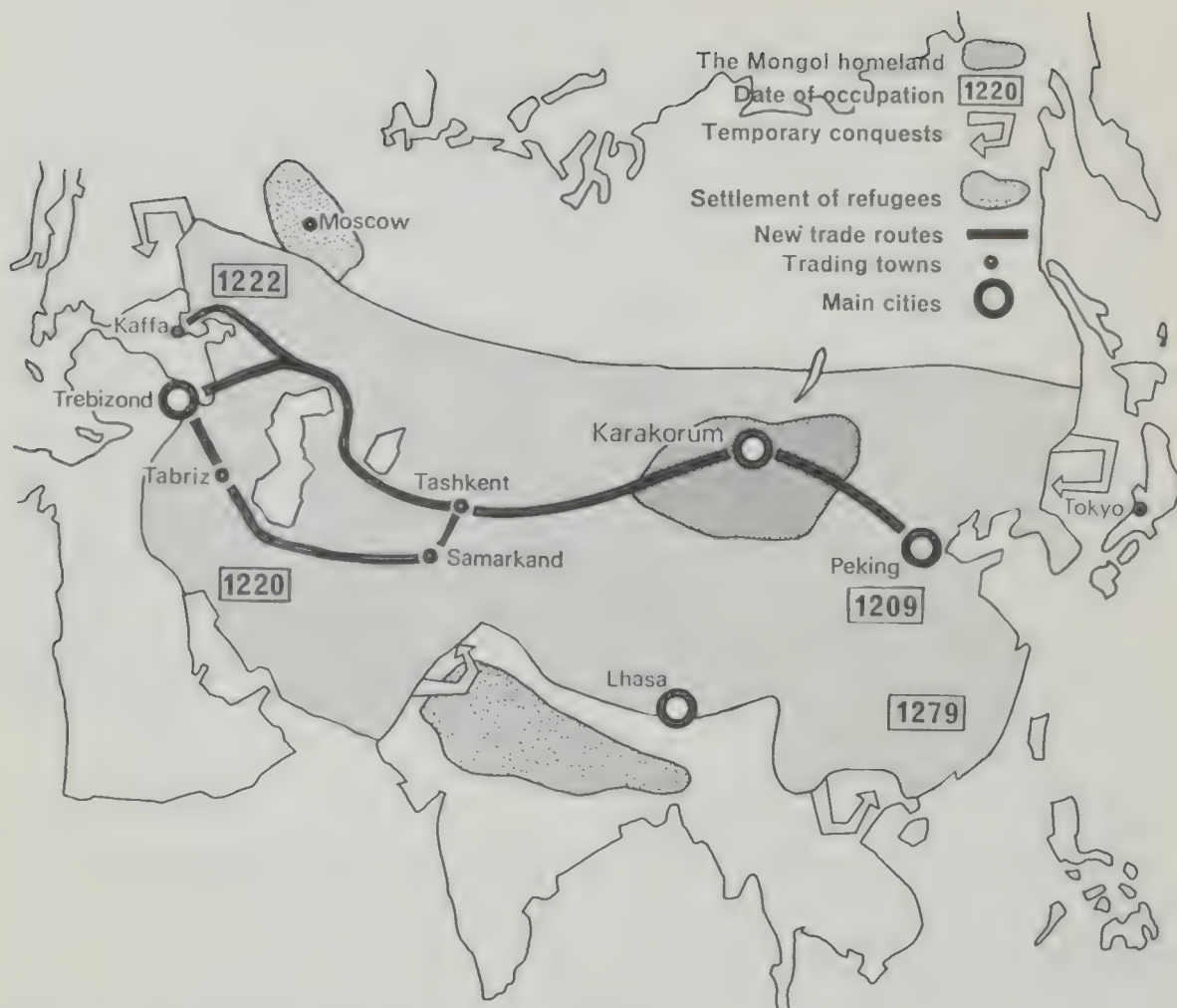
Kublai Khan, Emperor of China

their war leaders the Mongols might well have conquered the whole of Asia.

For a short time the Sung emperors regained control of China, but then a new Mongol war leader, Kublai Khan, gained power in 1259. He soon regained China and established a dynasty in Peking which lasted until the fourteenth century. Kublai admired Chinese civilization and encouraged the work of scholars and craftsmen.

Just at this time the first European traveller came to visit China. Marco Polo was the son of a Venetian merchant who undertook the unknown journey to China in search of new trade. Marco left Italy in 1271 and followed the long overland route to the East. He underwent adventures and survived many dangers during the several years that it took him to reach China. He was welcomed by Kublai Khan and spent many years in China writing about the wonders which he saw. Finally he journeyed to India and returned to Italy across the Indian Ocean and the Red Sea, having been away for over twenty years. Many people did not believe in all his stories, but were extremely interested in beginning to trade with the Far East. Although the Chinese were not anxious to allow Westerners into their country, some of their inventions such as gunpowder, printing and the mariners' compass, found their way to Europe by the fifteenth century.





THE MONGOL EMPIRE AT ITS WIDEST EXTENT

The Mongol conquests had several important results. During the conquests the Mongols had caused great devastation in Asia and Europe, but once the invasions were over the Mongol Empire united all Central Asia and brought peace. It was this which enabled an over-land trade route to be established between the eastern Mediterranean and China, which lasted until the fifteenth century. The Mongol raids had penetrated into Asia Minor and greatly weakened the Moslem Empire, and made it much easier for the Ottoman Turks to conquer the Near East as they moved westward to escape from the Mongols.

#### JAPAN

Japan had gained many ideas from China, and this had enabled the emperors to establish firm control of the country. This was a time of



Portrait of Minamoto, one of the Yoritomo rulers of Japan



peace and prosperity, and Japanese civilization began to develop. During the eleventh century noble families had once again taken control of the government. This situation lasted for a hundred years and though Japan was ruled well, the nobles became so interested in religion and the arts that they neglected the government and lost touch with the people. Soon the people grew discontented with the heavy taxes, half of which were spent on religion and the court. Nobles began to refuse to obey the ministers and gathered large armies on their country estates. The government collapsed and Japan was once more torn apart by a long civil war which was very similar to the feudal wars in Europe.

At the end of the twelfth century a noble family called the Yoritomos seized power by making an alliance with the Buddhist monks. The new government kept the old emperors as figure-heads, but set up an entirely fresh system of administration, like the Chinese one, which ran the country's affairs extremely efficiently. Soon yet another family gained power, and it ruled the country until the fourteenth century. The quarrels and jealousies of the nobles continued, and the only time that Japan was really united was when the Mongols threatened to invade the country.

Despite all this unrest the period was one of great cultural advance in Japan, and civilization reached a very high standard. Magnificent and beautiful palaces, temples, and government offices were erected in the main cities. Crafts of all kinds were encouraged and Japanese art and porcelain became famous.

As artistic and technical skills advanced, so did the standard of living, especially in the towns. There was even time to develop tea drinking into a highly elaborate ceremony. On the other hand, the country peasants, the small farmers and labourers, suffered as they always do in times of war.

## INDIA

The Moslems succeeded in extending their empire to the East at the time when they were losing power in the Mediterranean. By the tenth century they had advanced over the territories once conquered by Alexander the Great as far as northern India. At first the

Hindu empire of India proved to be too strong for the Moslems to make any further progress. One of the great periods of Indian history was ending during which Hindu culture had been strengthened by Chinese ideas introduced by Buddhist monks. Trade had become important, and Indian silks and spices were bought by countries as far away as England. Literature, art, and science reached new peaks, and Indian scholars discovered the use of decimals and even developed their own atomic theory. Then many people began leaving India to start new colonies in the East Indies, and the civilization began to decline.

At first the Moslems only raided northern India, so that it took them almost a hundred years to push as far south as the Sind. As the Hindus grew weaker the Moslem leaders became more determined to conquer the whole of the north. Soon they had advanced as far as the river Indus, and by the end of the twelfth century the first Moslem empire was set up in Delhi. These newcomers continued to rule large parts of India until the eighteenth century, when they were overthrown by the British.

The Moslems who attacked India were uncivilized tribesmen, who in their ignorance destroyed the culture of northern India. Yet once the invaders had settled down they did their best to restore and revive Indian civilization, though their religions kept the conquerors and the vanquished apart. The Hindu and Moslem religions always remained separate, and the two races came to suspect and hate each other. These attitudes led to the partition of India into Moslem Pakistan and Hindu India when the country was given independence by Britain in 1947.

### *SUMMARY*

Under the T'ang and Sung emperors, civilization flourished in China and many important ideas and inventions developed which spread to Japan and eventually, to Europe.—The Mongols conquered China, spread across the grasslands of Asia into Russia and Turkey, and opened up trade routes which linked East and West.—Marco Polo helped to carry many Eastern ideas to Europe.—The Moslems conquered northern India and introduced their religion—a factor which has caused great hatred between Hindus and Moslems.





**MARCO POLO — JOURNEY TO CHINA — 1271**

# Section 9: MEDIEVAL SOCIETY IN THE WEST

## CHAPTER 1: THE CASTLE AND NOBILITY

The main means of defence during the Middle Ages was the castle. The castle was at first very simple, being a wooden structure to provide temporary protection. This type of castle was known as the motte-and-bailey. The motte was a mound of earth some eighty to one hundred feet high on which was a strong wooden stockade containing huts to shelter the defenders. This mound was surrounded by another stockade, the enclosed area being the bailey, which could cover several acres. In times of danger the neighbouring villagers would bring their possessions and livestock into the shelter of the bailey. Around both the outer stockade and the motte ditches forty feet deep and twenty feet wide were dug to strengthen the castle. This type of castle was extremely useful for either defence or attack. The motte-and-bailey was strong enough to resist immediate attack, and began to be used during the raids of the Northmen. They were equally useful to subdue a conquered country, and William of Normandy had several hundred built in England until he had finally

The splendour of a 15th-century banquet

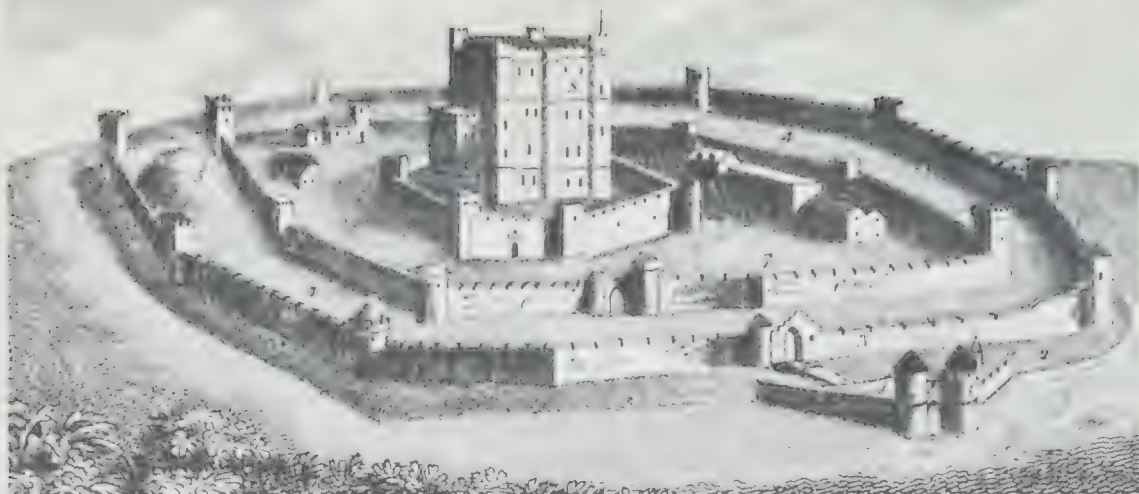




defeated the English. Once the motte-and-bailey had ceased to be useful it was allowed to fall into ruin, although the mound was often used again to build a stone castle.

As builders became more skilful the wooden castle was replaced by a stone structure, called a shell keep. Not only was stone more durable than wood, but it was much less likely to catch fire. During the Middle Ages the castle reached a high stage of development. The whole scheme of medieval warfare centred on the defence or capture of castles. As new ways were found to attack castles, so fresh methods of defence were developed, so that by the fourteenth century castles were being built that were almost impregnable. Western Europe learned much about the art of castle construction from the Moslems during the crusades, and it was after the twelfth century that some of the finest castles were built. A good example of a crusaders' castle was the Château Gaillard, the Saucy Castle, built by Richard I to protect Normandy from the French. Perhaps the strongest medieval castles were built by Edward I of England to protect his conquests in Wales, Beaumaris in Anglesey being completely impregnable as long as it was defended properly.

In general the design of castles was similar all over Europe, but of course, each castle had special features which depended upon its position. In hilly country castle builders used mountain slopes as a natural means of defence, while in flat country rivers often served the same purpose. Many castles were built in towns and formed part of the town's defensive fortifications. The strongest part of any castle was the keep, which had very thick walls and could be entered by only one doorway. The ground floor was partitioned into store and guard-rooms. The first floor was the banqueting hall off which led the main rooms used by the owner and his guests. The second floor was divided into many small rooms used by the lesser guests and the servants. Below the keep underground chambers were dug out which were used as additional guard-rooms and dungeons for prisoners. The area around the keep was defended by strong curtain walls, with heavily protected gateways, or barbicans, and watch-towers at regular intervals along the whole length of the walls. The enclosed area was divided up into wards or baileys, and was often further protected by walls from the curtain wall to the keep. In these wards were barracks for the garrison, kitchens, storehouses and stables. Cattle, sheep and hens were kept in the wards to supply fresh food in time of siege, and there was



The way in which ancient castles were built

- |                             |                             |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. The barbican             | 5. Artificial motte         |
| 2. The ditch or moat        | 6. Wall of the inner bailey |
| 3. Wall of the outer bailey | 7. Inner bailey             |
| 4. Outer bailey             | 8. Keep                     |

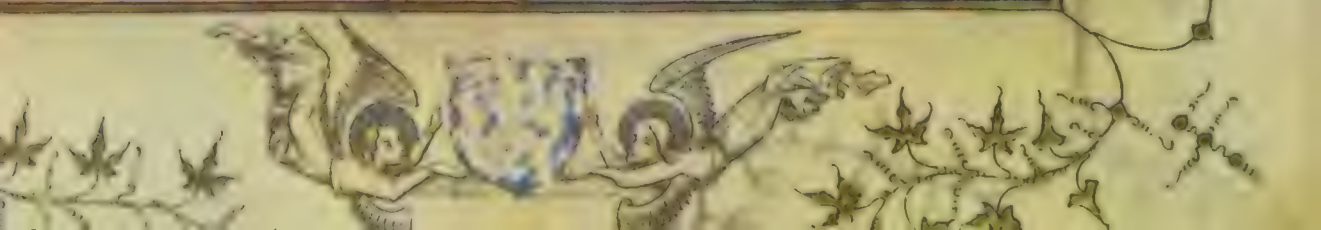
always a well within the keep to provide water. The curtain wall was strengthened by a deep moat, which was kept full of water by diverting a near-by spring. To enter a gateway it was necessary to cross a draw-bridge which could be raised at the approach of an enemy.

A long siege by a strong army was usually necessary to capture such a castle. Siege tactics were very complicated and followed a well-known pattern. The first move was to surround the castle to cut it off from help and fresh supplies. If the first assaults on the walls failed, the besiegers had to settle down to starve out the garrison. The attackers would use several methods to try to breach the walls. Large catapults which hurled huge stones were used to knock holes in the walls, but these were not very effective. Another means of breaching the walls was to dig mines under the foundations which were collapsed in the hope of bringing down the wall. While these operations were pro-

A drawing from a 13th-century manuscript showing two knights in battle









ceeding parties would be engaged in filling up the moat so that scaling ladders and towers could be brought up to the walls. All such attacks would be carried out under a heavy barrage of arrows and missiles from the defenders, and besiegers climbing scaling ladders were liable to have boiling oil or molten lead poured over them. While waiting for the castle to run out of food, the besiegers had to camp out in all weathers and were themselves liable to epidemics and starvation. When the castle ran short of food the defenders would agree to surrender if help did not arrive within a certain number of days.

Although the king owned a large number of castles garrisoned by royal troops, a powerful noble might have nearly as many. Castles made it difficult for the king to control his nobles and even a strong king often had to undertake long sieges to destroy the castles of any

A painting of Geoffrey Plantagenet



An example of a 14th-century illuminated manuscript



Gallery from which the defenders could drive back the besiegers



The castle at Tonquedec, France, showing the heavily defended gate way

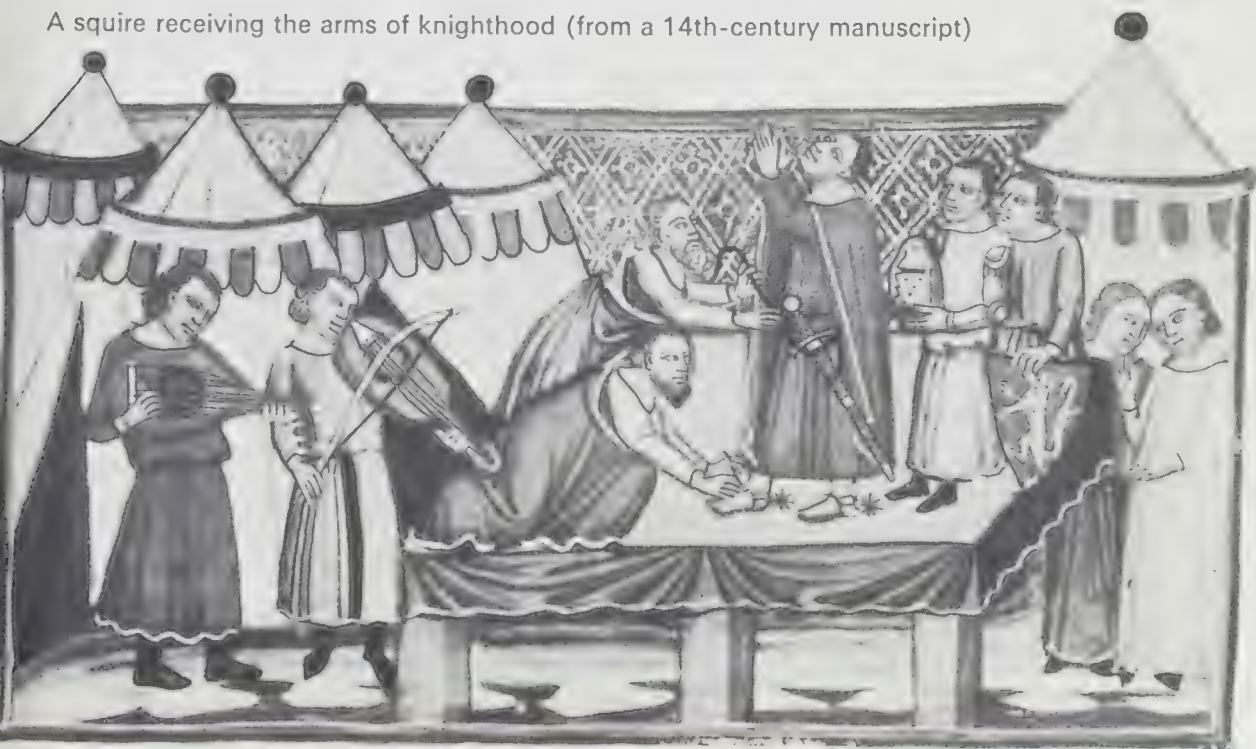


Plan of a medieval castle showing curtain walls, bailey and keep

rebels. Castles were the main means of security for noblemen in the troubled times during the Middle Ages, and the upper classes spent most of their lives in a castle, which was their natural home.

A nobleman would immediately be at home in any part of western Europe, as there was considerable contact between the upper classes, and the same code of conduct was followed in every country. The main amusements of the nobility were war and hunting. Great forests and parks were set aside to provide good hunting. These were carefully guarded by foresters, and any peasant caught poaching was liable to be put to death. Deer hunting was the most popular sport, but the more dangerous boar hunt was almost equally popular. Hawking was favoured, especially by the ladies, and large mews were kept, where birds of prey were trained to kill duck or heron on the wing and then return to the wrists of their owners. The most exciting sport of all was, of course, war, and noblemen spent a great part of their lives campaigning. War was less dangerous for the nobles than for the ordinary soldiers. A nobleman was valuable because he could be ransomed, so that he was normally held prisoner until his relatives or tenants paid the ransom. Such captivity was not unpleasant as the prisoner was treated as an honoured guest by his captor. At the rare intervals when there were no wars, the nobility provided tournaments or jousts as a substitute. Tournaments were contests between single knights, or mock battles between large groups of knights and squires, using blunted weapons. A knight could win a great reputation in such contests, and tournaments attracted champions from all lands.

A squire receiving the arms of knighthood (from a 14th-century manuscript)





Well-born children were trained from an early age to take their rightful place in society. Sons were sent to the castle of a friend or powerful nobleman before the age of ten for their education. At first they acted as pages in the household and were taught how to conduct themselves in a courtly society. An important part of their education was training in horsemanship and the use of weapons. When the youths were old enough they became squires to an older knight. As squires they were expected to look after their masters' armour, serve them at table and protect them in battle. The ambition of every squire was to prove his bravery in battle and to be knighted on the battlefield. Knighthood was the exclusive brotherhood of the upper classes, allowing them to carry a *coat of arms*. The knightly code of behaviour was strictly maintained, and anyone breaking it was despised. Girls were usually brought up by their mothers until their marriage to eligible suitors. The main part of their training was household management, as when they married they were expected to control the domestic organization of a large household. The only pastimes suitable for ladies were riding and hawking, the rest of their spare time being taken up in embroidery.

The ownership of land was the mark of nobility in the Middle Ages, and the only occupations for landless younger sons were the army or the Church. It was unthinkable for any nobleman to work in trade or industry, and those who did became social outcasts. It was equally difficult for the lower classes to enter the nobility, although it was by no means impossible. By the fifteenth century when land was becoming less important it became easier for the middle and professional classes to enter the nobility by purchasing land, especially as the kings favoured such men as a means of reducing the power of the nobles.

### SUMMARY

- Castles were at first built of wood, but later became strong stone structures.
- Medieval warfare was based on methods of defending and capturing castles.
- The medieval nobility was important and had its own code of conduct and means of educating its children.

## CHAPTER 2: THE CHURCH

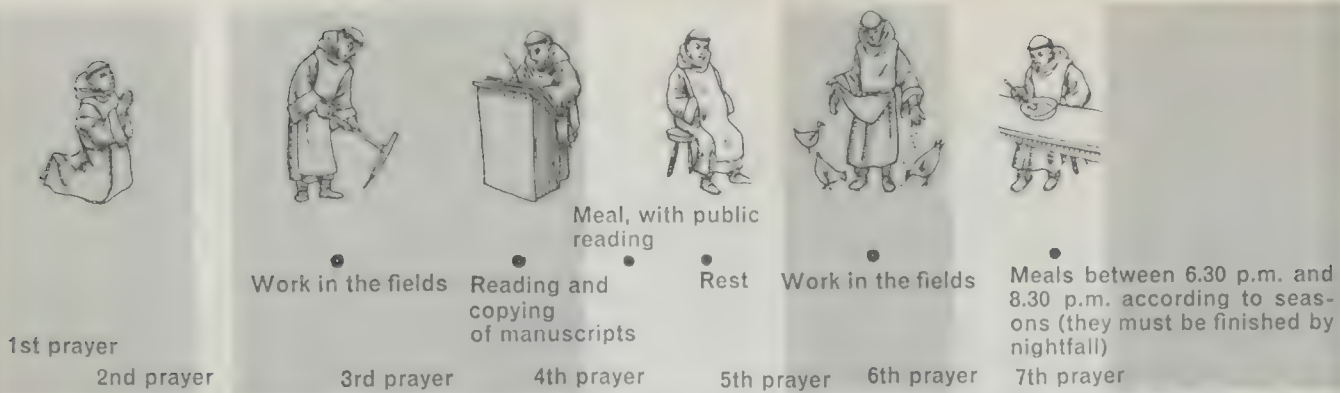
During the Dark Ages the kings and the Popes had looked to each other for help, but the growing power of kings and the Church in western Europe after the eleventh century led to a series of fierce quarrels as each claimed the leadership of Europe. The main conflict came in Germany where the Holy Roman Emperors tried to bring the Popes under their control, but the Popes had powerful weapons to use against their enemies. The clergy obeyed their Popes rather than their kings, so that if a king refused to obey the Church his country could be placed under an Interdict. This meant that the clergy of that country were forbidden to open the churches or to conduct services of any kind. Any individual who disobeyed the Pope could be excommunicated and, until he repented, was barred from the bodily and spiritual comforts which only the Church could offer. Few individuals were willing to sacrifice so much; therefore, the Popes gained the upper hand and became the most important figures in the West.

The head of the Western Church was the Pope, and although Popes and emperors might quarrel the Papacy was respected throughout Europe. The Pope organized the Church from the Papal States in Italy, where he was helped by a Council of senior clergy and cardinals, who were mainly Italians. When important decisions were needed the Pope could call Church Councils to which all the leading clergy from Europe would come.

Europe was divided into provinces in the same way as the old Roman Empire, each Church province usually corresponding to the western nations. The province was divided up into a number of sees under the control of archbishops, and the sees were in turn subdivided to dioceses administered by bishops. The Pope normally nominated the archbishops and bishops, or, at least, had to approve the men nominated by the kings. To ensure that his wishes were carried out the Pope could send a legate to any province; the legate was the superior of all the provincial clergy, and could order any changes necessary. The kings did not approve of these powers and this often led to disputes between them and the Pope. The duties of the archbishops and



## Monastic work under the Rule of St Benedict



bishops were mainly administrative, often leaving them little time for pastoral care. The cathedral was often more like a business centre than a church, and parochial duties were carried out by a dean and a *chapter of canons*, leaving the bishop free to appoint officials and collect Church taxes.

The diocese contained a large number of parishes, each of which would roughly correspond to the area of a village. These were in the care of a parish priest who was the most important part of the Church to villagers, who rarely saw a bishop and, perhaps, had never heard of the Pope. These parish priests were often peasants who had been educated

This view of Amiens Cathedral, in France, shows how the Gothic churches dominated the countryside



in a monastery and were appointed to the poorer or more isolated parishes. The more important parishes were given to better born and educated rectors or vicars, who might in turn pay a small *stipend* to a poor priest to carry out the duties of the parish. The parish priest was one of the most important men in the village, especially as the villagers could neither read nor write. Not only did he baptize, marry and bury his parishioners, and conduct all church services, but visited the sick and helped all those in need.

All clergy were protected by the Church and could not be tried in the ordinary courts, there being special Church courts to punish clerical offenders. This placed the clergy in a privileged position, and allowed many criminals to escape punishment. To claim 'benefit of clergy' a man had only to show a slight knowledge of Latin, and criminals often learned enough Latin to escape punishment in the king's courts. Church Sanctuary offered a means of escape for the criminal. An escaping offender could seek refuge in any church, and his pursuers could not lay hands on him until he left. Some towns had much wider sanctuary rights, so that any criminal entering the town and taking the Sanctuary Oath could live out his life there in perfect safety.

The ruins of Fountains Abbey, a Cistercian house in England







A 13th-century wall painting showing the investiture of a bishop

#### MONASTERIES

In the early years of the Church many men felt that the official clergy were not fulfilling the teachings of Christ, and withdrew to live in caves or huts in the swamps and deserts. Such hermits soon became respected by other Christians and attracted numbers of followers and disciples. The idea of withdrawing from the world to worship God more fully became popular in the West during the Middle Ages. The Celtic Christians in Britain had lived as monks in small beehive shaped huts, but the true monastic life was started by St Benedict.

St Benedict had established a monastery at Monte Cassino in Italy, and in 529 drew up a set of rules for his own monks. These rules became the basis for all monastic life during the Middle Ages. Anyone wishing to become a monk had to spend a year as a novice to decide whether he was suited to monastic life before taking his vows. Once such vows had been taken it was a great sin for a monk to leave the monastery. These vows were simple but strict. A monk had to give complete obedience to his abbot, own no property, and could never marry. Once within a monastery a man was cut off from the world and dedicated his life to the worship of God. Eight services were held daily and every monk was expected to attend them all, unless prevented by

A page from a 15th-century manuscript showing an armed camp, a castle and shipping of the period. (This represents the siege of Constantinople in 1453.)



Le siege du grant-turc avec ii. deses pncipaulte cōseillz.  
 Le liege du capitaine gñal de la turquie :

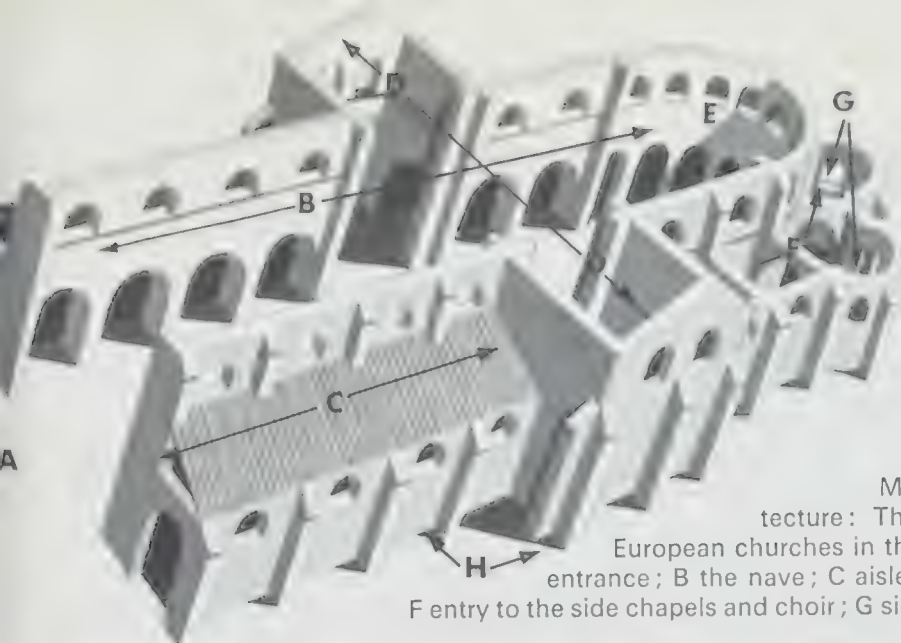


serious illness. At no time was a monk allowed to be idle. When not at prayer he was expected to work in the fields, repair the monastic buildings, or study in his own cell, or room.

Although the Benedictine monasteries were at first very poor they soon became rich through the hard work of the monks, and the strict rules were relaxed. This led to several attempts to return to the simple monastic life. In 911 a new monastery was built at Cluny, an isolated part of eastern France. Many monks joined the new *Order*, and *sister-houses* were opened all over Europe. Unlike the earlier monasteries all Cluniac houses were under the control of the abbot of Cluny, and were known as the Congregation of Cluny. By the eleventh century the Cluniac monasteries had themselves grown lax, and in 1098 another reformation was started. A group of monks built a monastery at Cîteaux, in a deserted valley in eastern France, and by 1128 the first Cistercian house was built in England. All Cistercian monasteries were situated in isolated places, and the monks soon became expert farmers, specializing in sheep. In an age when wool fetched high prices the Cistercians soon became as wealthy as the earlier Orders. Thus all attempts at simplicity were defeated by the skill of the monks, which always turned them into successful businessmen or landowners. By the end of the Middle Ages few monasteries or monks

The monastery of St Cluny, France (from an 18th-century lithograph)





Medieval Church architecture: The plan used for West European churches in the 11th century: A main entrance; B the nave; C aisles; D transepts; E apse; F entry to the side chapels and choir; G side chapels; H buttresses

obeyed their Rules, and many monks lived more like country gentlemen than hermits.

The original monasteries were simple buildings raised by the monks themselves, but later they were rebuilt in stone, and became magnificent examples of medieval architecture. The monastery was built round the cloister, which was a large quadrangle surrounded by covered passageways opening on to the lawns. The monks spent much time in the cloisters walking, meditating and working on their studies. The main building was the church, which was often used by the villagers, and was divided into two so that the monks did not mix with the outsiders. The other two large buildings were the dormitory and refectory where the monks ate and slept. On special occasions the

A Gothic cloister in the monastery of Mont Saint-Michel





monks met in the Chapter House to elect a new abbot, punish wrongdoers or to discuss any important decisions concerning the welfare of the monastery. Apart from this the monks had their own rooms for private prayer and study. Lay brothers, who had not taken the full vows, had their own rooms and dormitory. Large kitchens and store-rooms were needed to cater for all the inmates, and for any travellers, for whom special guest rooms were provided. Many monasteries had hospitals for the poor and sick, and a school for the village children. All monasteries had an almonry where gifts were given to the poor.

In many monasteries the senior monks spent most of their time administering the business of the monastery and its many estates. Only the lesser inmates had time for study and the copying and *illuminating* of manuscripts. Despite the laxity of many monasteries the monks did much to help the sick and poor, and to increase the prosperity of their estates.

#### THE FRIARS

By the thirteenth century many people felt that the monks were not doing enough to help the needy because they withdrew from the world. To remedy this two Orders of Friars were founded. These new Orders were forbidden to own any property, and had to live in the poorest parts of the towns. Moreover they were to mix freely with the ordinary people in order to give help where it was most needed.

The first Order of Friars was started by St Francis of Assisi. As a young man from a wealthy family, he chose a life of poverty in order to follow as completely as possible the life of Jesus Christ in preaching

The relics of saints were kept in beautifully decorated chests



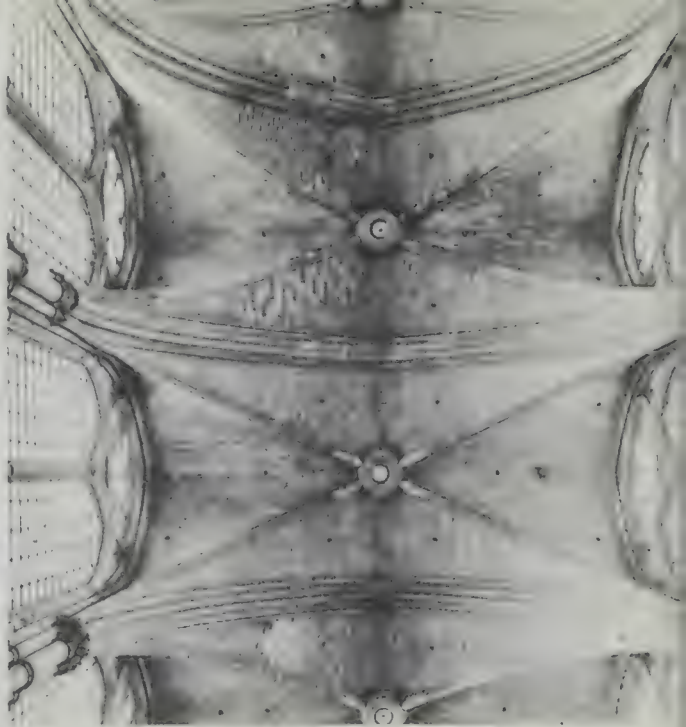


A painting by Giotto showing St Francis with some of his followers before Pope Innocent III





As buildings became higher and larger, the size of the windows increased until some buildings (such as Sainte-Chapelle, shown here) had walls which were mainly glass



West European masons had become more skilful. This photograph shows the type of vaulting used in Reims Cathedral



Mans Cathedral, shows how the advance in building skill brought height and lightness to the churches



As at Chartres Cathedral, flying buttresses were used to support the high stories of high buildings





The church of Vézelay: Nave was built in the style of the 11th century, while the choir in style of Gothic architecture

A highly decorated column in ►  
Chartres Cathedral, France



The execution of a heretic after trial by the Inquisition



the Gospel. He and a growing band of followers made a deep impression on both rich and poor as they travelled throughout Italy and elsewhere. They took over the popular music of the day, calling themselves 'God's troubadours' and by their single-heartedness and enthusiasm won many to their faith, healing divisions between cities and bringing about a great revival in the Church. Authorization for his Order of Mendicant Friars was given by Pope Innocent III in 1216. St Dominic, a Spanish priest, was also allowed to begin an Order of Friars, known as the Dominicans. Many Christians had begun to doubt the authority of the Pope, and were regarded as heretics. Strong measures were taken to stop such heresy, and a council called the Inquisition was set up to try and punish offenders. St Dominic hoped that his friars, by preaching and giving an example of true Christian living, would persuade many heretics to return to the Church.

The friars came directly under the control of the Pope and spread quickly all over Europe. At first they kept strictly to the vow of complete poverty. Friaries were built simply of wood and were situated in the worst town slums. The friars lived by begging and gave most of their alms to the poor. Soon, however, their enthusiasm gave way to a desire for more comfortable living. The Pope agreed that he would hold all gifts given to the friars and allow them to put them to their own use. This enabled them to build larger stone friaries and to own money and land. The friars continued to beg for alms, but they kept the money for their own purposes. Even so the friars never came to own as much land as the monks. For instance the Dominican friary at Beverley only owned some six acres of land worth twenty shillings a year by the fifteenth century. Yet despite their greater poverty the friars were extremely important, especially during the thirteenth century, and two of the greatest medieval scholars, Roger Bacon and Duns Scotus were friars.

### *SUMMARY*

The Pope was the centre of the Church, and organized the government of the Catholic provinces.—The parish priest was extremely important to the life of the peasants.—The medieval Church protected its members and provided the criminal with Sanctuary rights. —Monastic life was very important and was mainly governed by the Rule of St Benedict. —The monasteries played an important part in the life of the people, especially in providing education and help for the poor and the sick. —The monks shut themselves away from the world.—The friars tried to help those in need by living among the people.

## CHAPTER 3: TOWNS AND TRADE

Most medieval towns were not much larger than villages, but they differed in two important respects. Townspeople were normally free-men, and their main interest was trade not farming. Towns developed mainly from trade and, therefore, stood in places where trade was important. Seaports sprang up along the coasts as soon as the dangers of invasion ended during the eleventh century. Inland towns became important either on the lowest crossing point of rivers, or at the junction of main roads. Towns varied in origin, although many of the larger ones had been important in Roman times. The majority of smaller towns grew from the villages built by the barbarian invaders of the fifth century. Others appeared early in the Middle Ages growing up around a castle or monastery, which both protected the townspeople and provided them with trade.

In such troubled times many towns were protected by walls, or at least a ditch and earthworks, and where the main roads entered they were guarded by great gateways of stone or brick. Although the area

A fortified town in the 14th century





inside the walls was not large there was still many open spaces. Most of the inhabitants had a *croft* or *toft* where they could graze their cattle and sheep, while beyond the walls the Common Pastures provided grazing for large flocks and herds. In spite of the open spaces and the large gardens of the richer *burgesses*, the town presented a bewildering maze of narrow lanes and close packed houses. The streets and lanes were winding and had no footpaths, while the upper stories of the houses jutted out so far that they almost touched those opposite. This made the streets appear even narrower and darker. Houses were built without any attempt at planning and the streets twisted and turned so that a stranger would soon be hopelessly lost. Towns were extremely dangerous after dark. There was no street lighting and no police force, except for the Watch, so that the unwary were very liable to be robbed and murdered by the thieves who lurked in the dark alleyways. The untidy and rambling appearance of the town was made worse by the state of the streets. Only the most important thoroughfares were paved, and these were often in poor repair, while the remainder were just muddy tracks. In addition the townspeople threw all their rubbish into the streets, where it was left to rot unless it was eaten by animals or washed away by the rain. When conditions became more peaceful the over-crowding was improved as people began to build houses outside the walls to form residential suburbs.

A town was divided into parishes each of which had its own church, and these were the main landmarks of every town. Apart from churches most towns had several other imposing buildings. Many had a castle which both protected the townspeople and kept them in order. In every town there was at least one monastery or friary, and several small hospitals, *almshouses*, and perhaps a school. Some of the most magnificent buildings were those built by the merchants. Each guild had its own Livery Hall and there was often a central Guild Hall which later developed into the modern Town Hall.

In England towns were very small. London had a population of over 20,000, while Norwich, York, Southampton and Bristol had populations of almost 10,000, but few other towns had more than 5,000 inhabitants. Towns had their own systems of government and were independent of the feudal nobles who ruled most of the country. When trade became important in the eleventh century traders formed groups called Guild Merchants to organize commerce in the towns. As the

merchants became richer they bought burgage-charters from the kings and nobles which gave them the right to govern their own town. The Guild Merchants did not control the towns for long, because as trade increased the individual craftsmen left the Guild Merchants to form their own *guilds*. The new craft guilds elected members to sit on the committee which governed the town. This committee usually consisted of forty-eight of the richest merchants, and was divided into smaller groups, each responsible for one part of the town's affairs. One member was elected to be mayor or burgomaster, and twelve senior committee men became aldermen. Under the direction of the mayor these men were responsible for collecting taxes for the king, and separate tolls for the upkeep of the town. One of their most important duties was to organize trade within the town, each of which had its own regulations to control the sale of goods in the shops and markets. Apart from this the streets and walls had to be kept in repair and even sometimes cleaned.

For these purposes the town was divided into wards, under the control of constables appointed by the mayor. These constables had to ensure that the town's regulations were enforced, and enrol men for the Watch which tried to keep order within the town at night. There was usually a *curfew* at nightfall, when the gates were closed, and the townspeople had to stay indoors. In time of war constables were expected to select men to serve in the royal armies, and to protect the town.

On the Continent towns were to some extent more important than in England. The majority of towns were similar in that they were partially independent of the kings and the nobility, having bought their freedom in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. In Italy, Flanders, and parts of Germany the great cities, or communes, were completely independent. City-states such as Venice, Genoa, Pisa and Bruges elected their own governments and were completely outside royal authority. Another type of continental town that was rarely found in England was the 'ville neuve', or new town. These towns were established by nobles in their own territories in the hopes of attracting merchants and trade. The new towns were given special privileges by the nobles, who wished to share in the growing profits to be made from commerce.

Until the end of the Middle Ages the communes of Italy were the



most important and wealthy in the West because they controlled the Mediterranean trade. Yet even before the decline of the Mediterranean many of the large towns of northern Europe were beginning to become great centres of commerce. The Flemish towns of Ghent and Bruges were famed throughout the West as centres of the cloth trade, although the growth of the English cloth towns diverted some of their trade. In Germany, Hamburg, Lubeck and Visby were the main ports of the powerful Hanseatic League and dominated the North Sea trade despite determined efforts by the English merchants. Apart from these cities other smaller Western towns were well known for their specialized industries. Palermo in Sicily produced the finest silk in Europe, while Liège, Milan and Toledo were famous for their iron industries. The great majority of towns, however, like their English counterparts, did not specialize in any particular trade, but were market centres for their surrounding countryside.

Towns were the main centres of trade, which was controlled by the guilds. Every industry, trade and craft had its own guild, and every craftsman in a town had to belong to his own guild. In many cases each trade was divided into several craft guilds. For instance, the cloth trade had separate guilds for the carders, spinners, weavers, fullers, dyers, tailors and mercers. Guild members were divided into three classes, Master Craftsmen, Journeymen and Apprentices. Anyone wishing to enter a trade had to serve seven years' apprenticeship with a Master Craftsman until he was skilled enough to become a craftsman. During his apprenticeship he earned very little but was kept by his master. Having finished his apprenticeship, a man would become a journeyman working for a Master Craftsman until he had saved enough money to buy a shop and become a Master Craftsman himself.

Each guild had its own warden and officers who sent officials to inspect the work of guild members to make sure that it was of good quality, and that they were not giving short measures or charging too high prices. In return the officers ensured that no 'foreigners', craftsmen from another town, competed with their own guildsmen without having to pay high fines. The different guilds had their own uniforms or livery and took an important part in the life of the town. In several towns the guildsmen performed a series of plays based on stories from the Bible. These Mystery Plays were produced on stages placed on

large carts, which were drawn through the streets, stopping at various places so that all the townspeople could see them. Guilds often had their own altars in the parish churches, and often gave money to almshouses for the town's needy. At the same time they looked after their own less fortunate liverymen. Those too old or sick to work were given a home by the guild, and if a guildsman was killed his wife and family were provided for in the same way.

Markets and fairs were an essential part of medieval trade in the countryside. The right to hold a market or a fair had to be bought by a town from the king or the local noblemen. Although the villagers produced goods for most of their own needs there were many things which they could not make for themselves. On market days a great number of country people came into the town to buy such things as salt, tools, cloth and small luxuries. There were special markets for cattle, sheep and horses, at which local farmers met to buy or sell their stock. The great events of the year were fairs, which attracted merchants from every country in Europe. Fairs were one of the main ways of exchanging goods between foreign countries. Merchants would travel round Europe visiting the fairs, and thus giving the country people the opportunity to buy expensive luxuries. A farmer from Yorkshire

A 15th-century painting of a country scene





could easily buy a roll of Arabian cloth from an Italian merchant at one of the York fairs.

Seaports were even more important for the wealth of the nation, as all the country's export of surplus goods and import of articles which could not be produced at home went by sea. Many merchants had their own ships and traded privately, but the majority belonged to one of the great trading organizations such as the Hanseatic League, Merchant Staplers or Merchant Adventurers. Such groups had their own *marts* in towns all over Europe, so that members could go to almost any town and be sure of getting a fair price for their goods. Another advantage was that their ships sailed in large fleets which gave protection from the pirates who abounded in the European seas. Goods were mainly sent by sea because it was so difficult to send them by land. The roads were usually only earthen tracks which were full of ruts and holes in the summer and seas of mud in the winter. Only heavy carts and pack-animals could carry heavy goods in such conditions, and even so it took a long time to carry goods short distances from the ports. It was from the seaports that the kings collected the greater part of their taxes from the middle classes. *Tunnage* and *poundage* was levied on all



A castle and its estate in the 14th century

goods brought into the country and sent out of it and provided a steady income into the Royal Treasury.

Until the fifteenth century the Mediterranean remained the main centre of commerce. Italy was Europe's contact with the East, the Italian city-states buying goods from the Moslem and Byzantine Empires, and luxury articles from India and China via the overland route across Asia. These goods reached the rest of Europe either through the fairs or in Italian ships. The other European countries normally exchanged their surplus goods with their neighbours. Thus the French exported wine and the Scandinavians timber, rope and fish, but the most important European trade was wool and cloth.

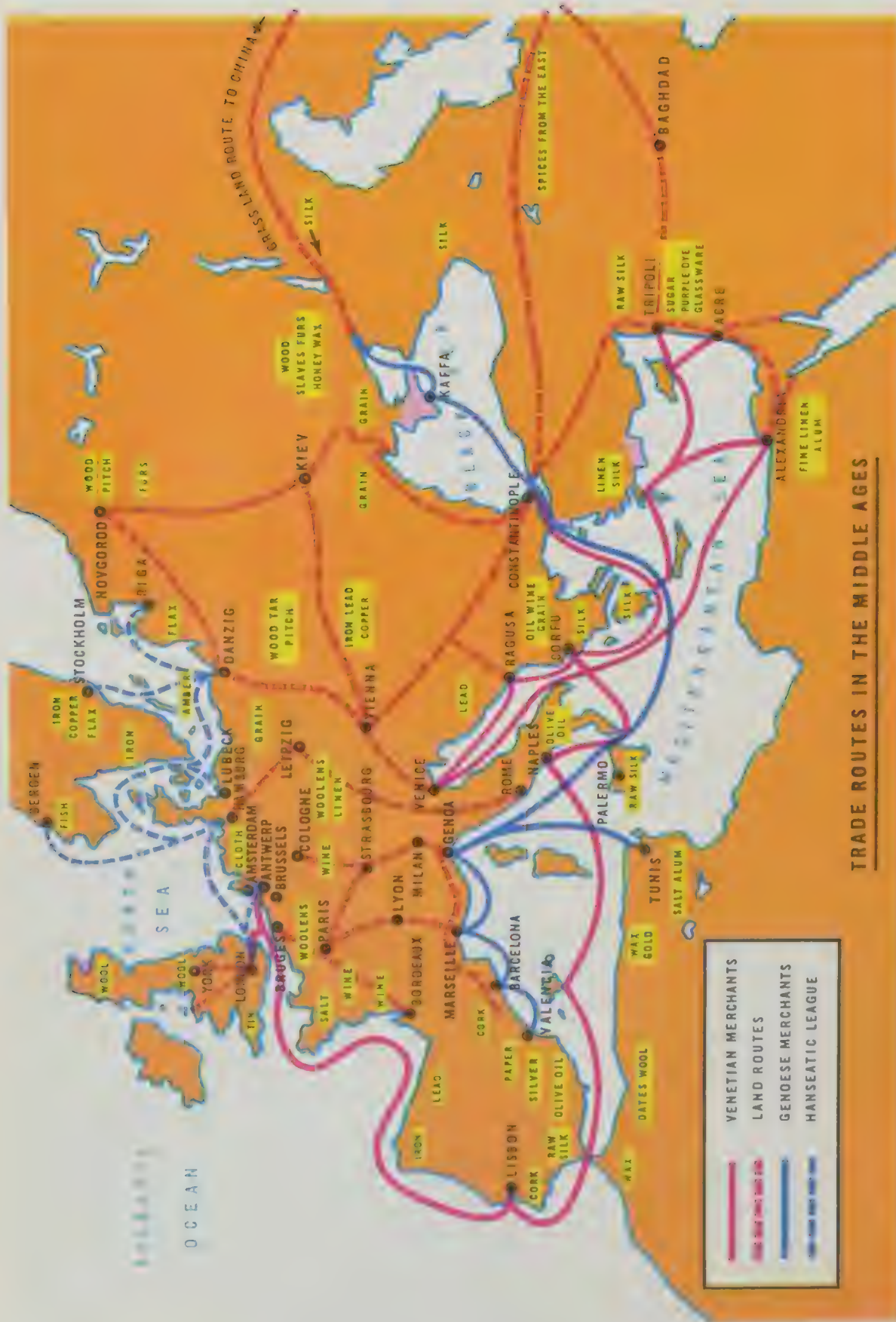
The two great centres of the cloth trade were England and the Netherlands. In the eleventh century England was famous for its wool, and huge flocks of sheep were kept by the landowners and monasteries. Wool was England's main export, being sent mainly to the Netherlands where it was woven by the Flemings. Great profits were made from this trade, and wool became the staple industry in England. Soon, however, the English began to develop their own cloth industry in towns of East Anglia, Yorkshire and the South-west. Such towns as Norwich, Lavenham, Kersey, Colchester, York, Beverley and Winchester became famous for their cloth. Cloth became one of England's chief exports and this caused great rivalry with the Netherlands. During the thirteenth century continental wars forced many Flemish weavers to leave their homes to come to England, where they were welcomed by Edward I. The new methods of weaving brought by the Flemings helped England to become the main cloth producing country in Europe.

Throughout the Middle Ages European trade was small and hindered by lack of money. Although the gradual increase in trade with the East increased the amount of money in circulation, it was not until the geographical discoveries (see p. 275) that trade became of major importance.

### *SUMMARY*

Towns and trade became important after the eleventh century and played a vital part in medieval life.—The craft guilds were the main means of governing towns and trade. Apart from sea-born trade the markets and fairs were the main centres of commerce.—Importance of the European trade routes; the luxury trade in the Mediterranean and the cloth industry in the north.





## CHAPTER 4: THE BLACK DEATH

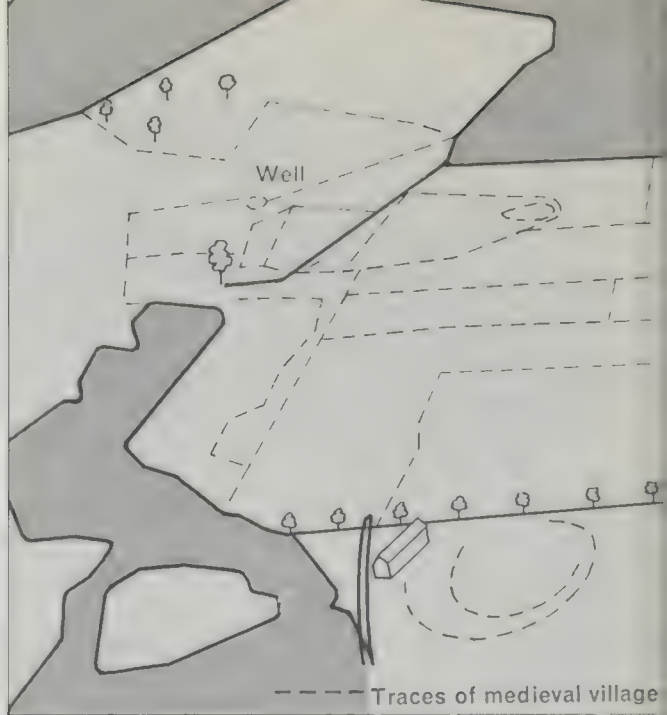
The Black Death was one of the great disasters of the Middle Ages and had enormous effects on medieval life. The Black Death was the name given to an epidemic of bubonic plague which swept across Europe in the fourteenth century, and did not die out in some countries until the eighteenth century.

The main cause of the plague was the brown rat brought into Europe by the ships trading with the Near East. Until the eleventh century the black rat had been the main European rodent, but it soon began to be replaced by the much dirtier brown rat brought to Europe in the cargoes of the trading ships. These rats carried the germs of the bubonic plague which was common in the Near East, and their fleas passed the disease on to the people of Europe. Naturally the rats came ashore in the ports where the cargoes were unloaded, and the seaports of Italy and southern France were the first to be infected. Gradually the number of brown rats increased until they had established them-

The suffering caused by the Black Death led many to think of the passion of Jesus and many religious paintings of this kind appeared. (School of Avignon.)







This photograph and diagram shows how some villages entirely disappeared after the Black Death

selves in every country of Europe. During the fourteenth century outbreaks of plague increased until in 1348 it ravaged all Europe from the Mediterranean to Scotland.

One of the main reasons for the terrible plague of 1348 was the weather. The winter of 1347 had been very mild and wet and the rain continued throughout the summer, turning the ground into mud, ruining the crops and causing unhealthy fogs and mists which did not clear all day. These conditions helped the plague to spread quickly from the towns to the countryside until there was hardly a town, village or hamlet that was not infected. Not only the poor people and peasants died, but nobles, scholars and priests. Many fled from the towns to escape, but until the worst outbreak died down there was no escape anywhere. The victims came out in huge black boils all over their bodies and usually died within twenty-four hours, and even if they recovered they were often crippled. In England alone a third of

A wall painting of the 'Dance of Death', showing the triumph of Death, at the time of the Black Death



the population died between 1348 and 1349. The population which had risen from one million in 1050 to four millions in 1300, only reached four millions again by the sixteenth century.

The plague did not end with the Black Death but continued to break out again at regular intervals. The main reason for this was the lack of sanitation in the towns and villages, and the low standard of health among the people. As the people gradually became more immune to the plague it died out in the countryside, but it remained in the towns and ports for several centuries. The last bad epidemic in England was the Great Plague of London in 1665. The Great Fire of London in the following year not only destroyed much of the city, but also killed the plague germs.

The greatest effect of the Black Death was to slow down the economic development in England. Large numbers of people died from the plague and this kept the working force low. Towns were the worst affected and this tended to slow down trade in many areas. It was, however, the countryside which suffered the greatest changes. Many villages disappeared altogether as all the villagers had died. The manors lost large numbers of men so that there were not enough peasants to work the land. Some farms were abandoned and large areas of land were allowed to grow wild and were not farmed again for centuries. As so many peasants had died the lords of the manor were anxious to keep as many men as possible. Realizing this the peasants demanded higher wages and to be freed from serfdom. Despite attempts by the governments to keep the wages low, the landowners had to pay increased wages or risk their labourers running away to another manor. In England feudalism was already beginning to decline and the Black Death hastened the end of serfdom.

On the Continent the effects of the Black Death and the Plague Cycle, which recurred every ten years, were similar to those in England. The plague spread from Constantinople through Sicily into Italy and affected the Mediterranean countries and trade. Italy with its great cities such as Florence, Genoa and Venice suffered badly, and there was an increase in the unrest between the rich merchant classes and the working classes. A third of the working classes died, and the shortage of labour caused a rapid rise in wages. As the labour force increased the employers tried to lower wages and this led to widespread revolts in the cities later in the century. The Black Death caused equal unrest in Germany and France. The sudden attack of the plague caused



great panic in Germany, and the peasantry took advantage of this to demand better conditions. After the first panic had died down the landowners united to force the peasants back into serfdom, which caused discontent in Germany for a hundred years. It was, perhaps, the French peasantry who suffered the most from the Black Death. France, already ravaged by the Hundred Years War, was in no condition to lose a third of its working force. Not only were the peasants expected to do twice as much labour, but they had to pay high taxes. Finally in May 1358 the starving peasants rebelled. The Peasant uprising, the Jacquerie (from Jacques: a peasant) was directed against the French nobility and caused great damage before it was suppressed in June. The revolt only worsened the position of the French peasantry, as the frightened nobles firmly enforced serfdom until the eighteenth century.

All over western Europe the Black Death caused resentment among lower classes against the enforcement of feudal dues, but this made the nobility the more determined to maintain their ancient rights.

### *SUMMARY*

The Black Death was a bubonic plague spread by rats and fleas. —Almost a third of the population of Europe died from the plague, which kept breaking out in the towns until the seventeenth century. —The consequences of the Black Death caused great unrest among the lower classes who tried to escape from the serfdom of the feudal system.



A carving showing mankind imploring the Virgin Mary for help against the Black Death

## Section 10: THE WIDENING HORIZON

### CHAPTER 1: THE BEGINNING OF THE VOYAGES OF EXPLORATION, AND THE END OF THE MIDDLE AGES IN THE WEST

Portugal's long Atlantic coastline was ideal for a maritime nation, and at the beginning of the fifteenth century the Portuguese began a naval war against the Moslems of North Africa. Prince Henry the Navigator was the main architect of Portugal's maritime expansion. In 1415 he went with one of his father's expeditions against the Moslem port of Ceuta in North Africa. After the capture of the town, Henry was filled with curiosity as to what lay beyond Ceuta and Cape Bojador. He returned to Portugal and began to plan a series of voyages to discover what countries existed beyond the known northern coast of Africa. Fifteenth-century navigation was not very exact, but the Portuguese could follow the African coastline without danger of becoming lost. Henry first sent his ships to explore the seas between Portugal and Cape Bojador. In 1420 the Madeira Islands were claimed for Portugal, and eleven years later the Azores were discovered. By 1433 the Portuguese ships passed Cape Bojador and by 1460 the explorers had sailed as far south as the Cape Verde Islands. These voyages continued into the sixteenth century and began the expansion of European influence which was soon to dominate the whole world.

In 1492 Isabella found the money to fit out a voyage of exploration across the Atlantic proposed by an Italian navigator Christopher Columbus. The unexpected discovery of the new continent of America



Isabella and Ferdinand  
of Spain



Moslem Arch



The fortress of the Alhambra. Plan of the Alhambra overleaf

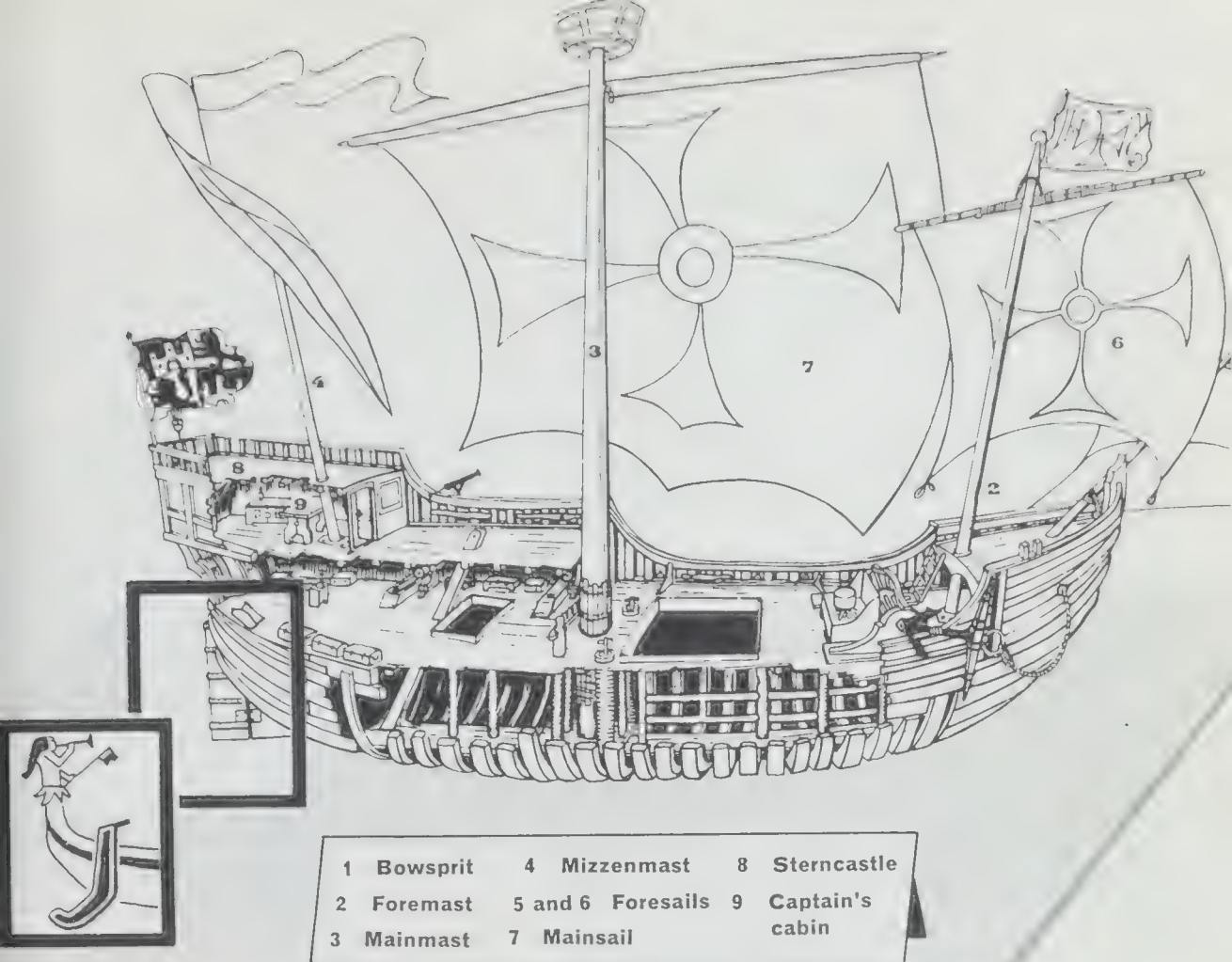


The Court of Lions, the Alhambra, Granada



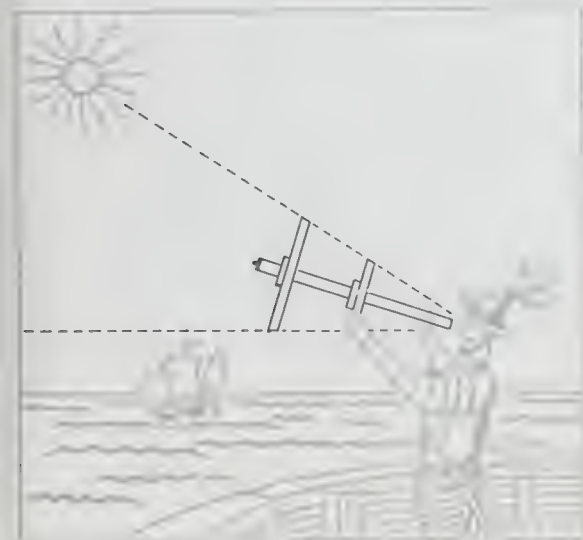
The gardens of the Alhambra





The *Santa Maria* in which Christopher Columbus sailed

The astrolabe, used for obtaining the altitudes of planets and stars



Globe of the world by Martin Behaim (1492)



suddenly added a huge empire to the Spanish kingdom. Soon the crusades, which had earned the Spanish monarchs the title of 'Catholic Kings' from the Pope, were forgotten in Spain's rapid rise to become the leading European nation.

The appearance of France, England and Spain as nation states had begun to undermine the structure of medieval Europe. The decline of the German empire, and loss of prestige by the Papacy destroyed the concept of a united Christendom, and the separate nations became preoccupied with their own affairs. These changes were reflected by the transformation of thought in Europe during the fifteenth century.

European monarchs were becoming much stronger, while the nobility was losing its power. One of the causes for this was the increasing use of gunpowder. The new cannons, although not particularly

A considerable change had taken place from the galleys of the 11th century (steered by a hand rudder, see *right*—part of the Bayeux Tapestry) and the caravels of the 15th century (detail from *The Life of St Ursula* by Carpaccio) steered by a wheel powered rudder. These ships were strong enough to withstand the storms of the open seas





Virgin and Child with Canon van der Paele by Jan van Eyck (Municipal Museum, Bruges)  
By the 15th century artists had begun to depict life more naturally, as shown by this painting of the Nativity by the Master of Moulines (*below*)





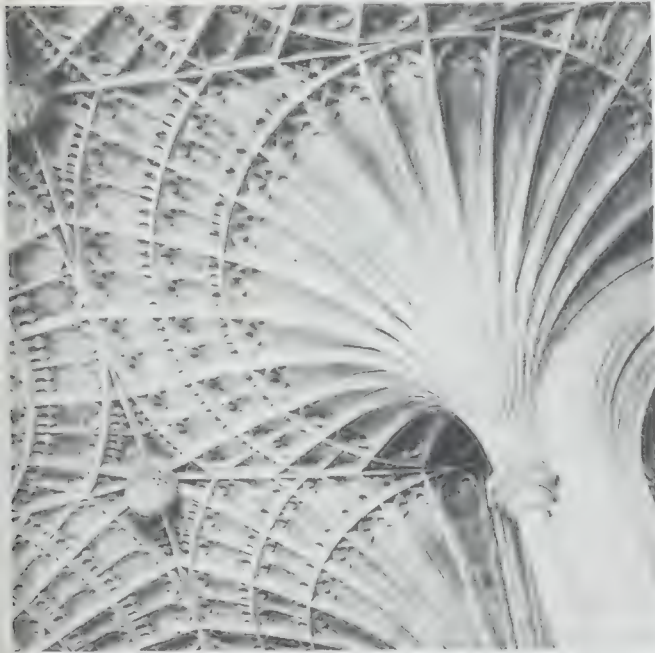
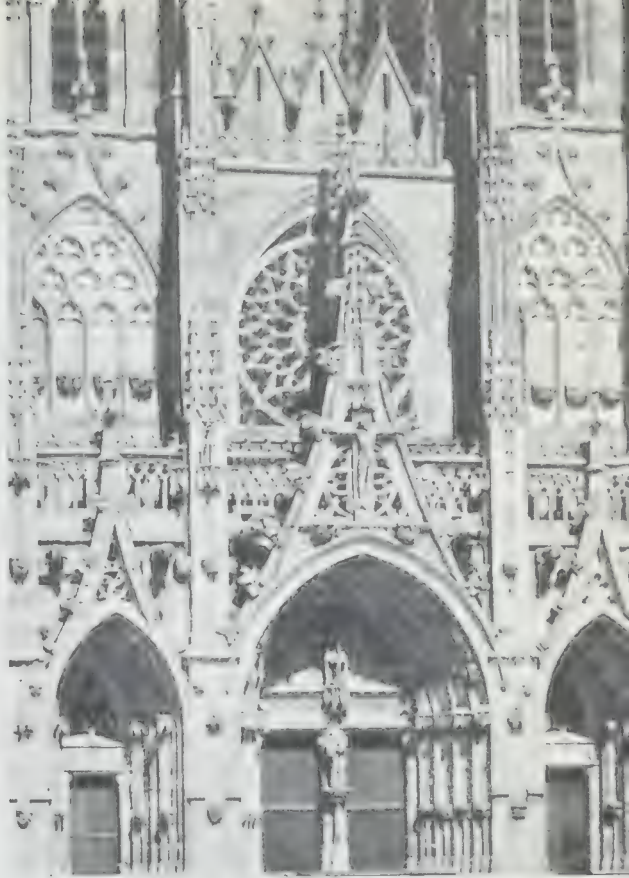
accurate, rendered the heavy *plate armour* of the nobles useless. At the same time cannons enabled the kings to destroy the castles which had protected the nobles. Even in the fifteenth century many nobles were abandoning their damp and draughty castles in favour of more convenient manor-houses. This made it much easier for kings to control their great subjects and lessened the risk of civil war. As trade increased the towns became more important and used their wealth to support the monarchy. Many rich merchants and professional men bought estates from impoverished nobles, and gradually formed a new nobility. Despite the growth of trade, Europe had an agricultural economy, and the nobility remained powerful through the ownership of land.

As the nobles no longer had to maintain large castles and retinues of armed retainers, they could use their money for other purposes. Many spent large sums on building country and town houses in the latest architectural styles. Such houses had to be furnished and decorated so that craftsmen were employed in large numbers to beautify the homes of the wealthy. With increased leisure the nobility began to interest itself in literature and the arts. It became fashionable to be a patron of art, employing scholars, craftsmen and artists as part of the household staff. Men who otherwise could never have afforded to develop their scholastic and artistic talents were thus given the opportunity to use their abilities to the full.

One of the greatest aids to the spread of learning during the fifteenth century was the invention of printing in Europe. At first printing was carried out by carving words and pictures on to blocks, but this method was slow and clumsy, and the blocks had to be recut frequently. The method of using movable type was discovered in Germany by Johann Gutenberg of Mainz by the middle of the century. After this the art of printing spread quickly. In 1476 William Caxton set up the first English printing press near Westminster in London. At the same time cheap paper was made from linen rags. Printing and paper replaced the medieval method of producing books by laboriously copying manuscripts by hand on to *vellum*. The printed books could be produced in large numbers and at a much lower price, and books became available to the poorest scholars.

The spread of books had a considerable effect upon the languages of Europe. During the Middle Ages Latin had been the language of the Church and scholars, while French was used widely by the upper

By the 15th century Gothic architecture had become extremely ornate. Churches were designed to give the impression of height, and the stonework was covered with carvings (Notre Dame Cathedral, France) ▶



▲ Inside the churches the heavy columns and vaults were replaced by delicate columns and beautiful fan vaulting (Lincoln Cathedral, England)



▲ With the increase of trade, merchants could afford to buy luxurious houses, such as the one shown in these two photos ▶





EUROPE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY



Church and scholars, while French was used widely by the upper classes. This had tended to divide these classes from the mass of the peasantry who spoke their own native *dialects*. Even during the fourteenth century there had been an increase in the use of native languages, or vernacular, in every country. Books began to be printed in German, French or English, and there was a growing minority which demanded that the Bible should be printed in the vernacular. Nobles and courtiers began to use their own languages, although French continued to be used as the Court language. As the number of books increased authors and poets were able to publish their works in their native language, which enabled them to be read by a wider public. This movement away from the universal languages of French and Latin was another sign of the recognition of the nation states.

Perhaps one of the greatest changes of the fifteenth century was the transformation of medieval thinking. Throughout the Middle Ages Western thought had been dominated by the teachings of Aristotle, and few scholars had dared to challenge these ideas for fear of being accused of heresy. As western Europe came into closer contact with the Byzantine and Islamic civilizations, whose scholars challenged Aristotelian thought, heresy increased and the Papacy was forced to set up the Inquisition (see p. 262). After the Papal victory over Germany in the twelfth century the Church had been strong enough to dominate

Houses owned by members of the Hanseatic League at Lubeck





Europe. Then during the fourteenth century the Popes fell under the influence of the French kings and were forced to live at Avignon during the 'Babylonish Captivity'. This brought the Papacy into disrepute and many people began to doubt the Pope's authority. Such people were mainly of humble origins, like the *Lollards* in England, but in Italy well-known scholars had new thoughts about the values of life.

Italy was the most civilized part of Europe because the Mediterranean trade had brought wealth and leisure. During the fifteenth century large numbers of Greek scholars fled from the Turkish invasions of the Balkans and then they had settled in Italy. These scholars brought not only their learning, but large quantities of valuable manuscripts that had been lost to the West for centuries. These were studied by the Italian scholars and caused a great revival of interest in Greece and Rome, and a rebellion against medieval morality. Some of the new

A 14th-century painting showing the triumph of Satan caused by the spread of heresy





A merchant and his wife in the 15th century

humanists were not interested in religion, but devoted themselves to the study of mankind. Books were no longer entirely confined to religious subjects, and dealt with more worldly affairs. Similarly artists and craftsmen began to portray religious and non-religious topics in a more natural and true to life manner, which was quite different from the medieval style. The rapid changes of thought in Italy spread less quickly in the rest of Europe, but the voyages of discovery by the Portuguese made people aware of a larger world beyond the confines of medieval Europe. By 1500 the structure of medieval Europe was vanishing and the new Europe of the Renaissance was taking its place.

### *SUMMARY*

Portugal concentrated on sea-power and explored the West African coasts.—Spain, united by the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella, drives out the Moors.—Columbus discovered America.—Spain quickly becomes important.—Nation-states gained importance as monarchies win control of nobles.—As the nobles had lost power they became interested in art and learning.—Printing spread learning.—Decline in the Popes' authority led to changes in medieval thought, encouraged by new ideas brought from Constantinople.



## THE RISE OF CIVILIZATION 2700–300 B.C.

YEARS B.C.	EGYPT	GREECE	INDIA	CHINA	OTHERS
2700	Step pyramid built at Sakkarah				
2600					
2500					
2400	Great pyramids and Sphinx built				
2300	Sun God Re became the god for the whole of Egypt				
2200					Mesopotamia: c. 2210 "Royal" graves of Third Dynasty of Ur
2100	Pyramids robbed—tombs and statues destroyed Mentuhotep II reunited Egypt with the capital city at Thebes				
2000					Creta: Palaces at Cnossos Phaistos built. Pictographic writing
1900	Outposts set up as far south as 3rd cataract				Asia Minor: Hittites invaded Asia Minor
1800	The city of Thebes and its god Ammon became important	First Greek-speaking peoples invaded			
1700	Egypt under rule by Hyksos Hebrews settled in Egypt Horse-drawn chariots introduced				Mesopotamia: Hammurabi c. 1780 reigned from Babylon Syria-Palestine: Abraham c. 1800–1750 (date uncertain)
1600					Asia Minor: Labarnos c. 1640 extended Hittite rule over most of Asia Minor; conquered N. Syria
1500	Ahmose I expelled the Hyksos	Achaens in Greece (Mycenaean shaft-graves)			Mesopotamia: Hittites captured Babylon. Amorite Dynasty ended
1400	Thutmose III extended Empire Hatshepsut built temple at Deir el Bahri				Creta: Fall of Cnossos
1300	Amenophis III Son of Amenophis III, Amenophis IV (changed name to Ikhnaton) and Queen Nefertiti*	Palaces at Mycenae, Tiryns, Pylos Tholos tombs c. 1300			Mesopotamia: Rise of Assyrian Power c. 1300
1200	Rameses II repelled the Hittites Flight of Hebrews				Mesopotamia: Shalmaneser 1276 Babylon under Assyrian rule
1100	Rameses III repelled Libyans and People of the Sea	Dorian Invasion Beginning of Iron Age Siege of Troy 1194–1185			Phoenicia: Philistines established on Lebanese-Syrian coast Creta: Dorian invasions c. 1100
1000	Tombs at Thebes looted	First Greek colonies in Asia Minor			Phoenicia: Phoenician colonies in Africa and Syria founded
900	Egypt ruled by Libyans	Dark Ages Homeric epics took present form about 950–800			Mesopotamia: Revival of Assyria c. 900 Syria-Palestine: Solomon c. 970–933 Jewish Kingdom divided: Ephraim (N), Judah (S)
800					Mesopotamia: Ashurbanipal Shalmaneser III Phoenicia: Carthage founded
700	Egypt ruled by Numidians	Greek commercial expansion, colonies in Italy 1st Olympic meeting c. 776 Homer Hesiod c. 700			Mesopotamia: Tiglathpileser III 745–727 Height of Assyrian Power Sennacherib invaded Judah 700 Syria-Palestine: Samaria fell

\* Egyptian power at its greatest

# CHART

YEARS B.C.	EGYPT	GREECE	INDIA	CHINA	OTHERS
					Mesopotamia: Esarhaddon died c. 684. Ashurbanipal 669–626. Fall of Nineveh 612. Asia Minor: Croesus. In Lydia metal coinage invented. Invasion by Scythians, Cimmerians.
600	Assyrians destroyed. Persians	First written records. Age of Aristocracy.	Iron introduced.	Chou Dynasty 1027–221.	
500	Egypt conquered and ruled by Persians.	Age of Tyrants. Greek colonies in Egypt, Asia Minor, Syria. Solon of Athens 594. Pericles at Athens 500–510. Pythagoras.		Iron introduced.	Syria-Palestine: Babylonian conquest (1st deportation) 597. Final captivity of Judah 586. Restoration under Cyrus 538.
400		Battles of Marathon 490, Salamis 480, Plataea, Mycaele.	Buddhism and Jainism founded.	Confucius.	
300	Conquest by Alexander the Great.	Pericles and Athenian empire, zenith of Greek civilisation. Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta 431–404.	Kingdom of Magadha.	Period of the Warring States.	Assyria powerful.

## EUROPE AND ASIA 800 B.C. – A.D. 450

DATE	ROME	INDIA	CHINA
B.C. 800			
	Legendary founding of Rome.	Age of Epics.	Barbarian attacks—capital moved.
700			
600		Iron introduced.	
500	Rome ruled by Etruscan kings; Republic set up.		Iron introduced.
400	Rome joined Latin League.	Buddhism and Jainism founded.	Confucius.
300	Agreement with Latin League broken; Rome sacked by Gauls; Rome defeated by Latin League; Appian Way built; Rome completed conquest of Central Italy.	Kingdom of Magadha.	Period of the Warring States.
200	Rome ruled Southern Italy; First silver coins; 1st Punic War; 2nd Punic War.		
100	Defeat of Macedon and Syria; 3rd Punic War; Southern Gaul and North Africa conquered; Marius and Sulla.		
0	Spartacus slave revolt; Cicero consul; Caesar conquered Gaul; Civil war between Caesar and Pompey; Caesar assassinated; Defeat of Antony and Cleopatra; Octavian became Emperor Augustus; Horace, Virgil.		
A.D.			
100	Birth of Christ.		
	Livy, Ovid; Emperor Tiberius; Emperor Caligula; Claudius—Conquest of Britain; Fire of Rome; 1st persecution of Christians; Pliny the Elder; Colosseum built; Destruction of Pompeii; Tacitus (Germania).		
200	Suetonius (Lives of the Caesars); Hadrian's Wall built; Hadrian expelled Jews from Jerusalem; Marcus Aurelius Emperor.		
300	Roman citizenship granted to all free citizens; Large scale Barbarian invasions; Cities built new defensive walls; Diocletian reorganised Empire and persecuted Christians.		Ch'in Dynasty. Great Wall built.
400	Constantine the Great adopted Christianity; Julian attempted to restore paganism; Theodosius the Great; St. Jerome; Roman Empire permanently divided.		
450	Rome sacked by Alaric the Goth; St. Augustine.		



## GLOSSARY Part I

<i>Accounting</i>	A system of counting, checking and reckoning.
<i>Administrators</i>	People responsible for running or looking after an organization.
<i>Alliance</i>	An agreement.
<i>Alloy</i>	A mixture of two or more metals produced by melting them together.
<i>Ally</i>	A person, tribe or country with whom an agreement has been made.
<i>Amber</i>	The resin from trees which has hardened over a long time. It can be used for making ornaments.
<i>Annihilated</i>	To be cut down to nothing. To be completely destroyed.
<i>Arena</i>	An open space used for races and contests.
<i>Assassinate</i>	To murder by a surprise attack or in secret.
<i>Astronomy</i>	The study of the stars.
<i>Besiege</i>	To surround with an army and try to starve out a defended place.
<i>Booty</i>	Goods and money shared out by conquerors after a victory.
<i>Botany</i>	The study of plants.
<i>Campaign</i>	A number of military battles against a particular enemy.
<i>Capital</i>	1. The chief city of a country. 2. The top part of a pillar.
<i>Ceremony</i>	A number of actions performed for a special purpose or reason.
<i>Chaff</i>	The 'shell' or case which covers the wheat grain.
<i>Chronological</i>	The order in which events happened. In sequence according to time.
<i>Civil Servant</i>	A person employed by the government to help in running the country.
<i>Colony</i>	An area, often a city, built up by people who have left one country to settle in another.
<i>Comedy</i>	A light-hearted or humorous play.
<i>Confiscate</i>	To take an object away as a punishment.
<i>Constitution</i>	The group of laws which lay down the way in which a country shall be governed. The word is

	also used to describe the document in which these laws are written down.
<i>Continuous</i>	Joined together or carrying on without interruption.
<i>Convert</i>	1. To change. 2. To change a person's religion.
<i>Creation</i>	The making of the universe.
<i>Decipher</i>	To make out the meaning of something which is not known or understood, such as hieroglyphics.
<i>Deposit</i>	1. To lay down. 2. Something which has accumulated, a layer.
<i>Derived</i>	Come from. The way in which something has arrived at its present shape or form.
<i>Descendants</i>	Later generations.
<i>Dictator</i>	A person who rules a country by himself and enforces his ideas on all the people.
<i>Dispute</i>	A disagreement.
<i>Documented</i>	The events which have been written down and these records kept.
<i>Dowry</i>	The sum of money or property which a woman takes with her when she marries her husband.
<i>Drama</i>	The way in which human actions are represented in a play.
<i>Edict</i>	An order given by a king or lawgiver.
<i>Eloquent</i>	Having the ability to speak easily, beautifully and persuasively.
<i>Empire</i>	The large area of land ruled by an emperor.
<i>Ensi</i>	Ruler.
<i>Entrails</i>	The inside parts of the body, particularly in the abdomen.
<i>Envoy</i>	A messenger sent by one person in authority to another.
<i>Epic</i>	A poem which retells a great event in impressive language.
<i>Estates</i>	The lands owned by a person.
<i>Evacuate</i>	To remove the contents of something. To remove the people from a threatened city.
<i>Exception</i>	Something that is not included.
<i>Exile</i>	To be forced to live in a country which is not one's own.



<i>Export</i>	To send goods to another country.
<i>Fertile</i>	Land which produces good crops.
<i>Foreign</i>	Belonging to another country.
<i>Fortify</i>	To make strong. To increase the defences.
<i>Fresco</i>	A painting done on wall plaster, while the plaster is still wet.
<i>Galleys</i>	Ships driven by rows of oars.
<i>Garland</i>	A wreath of flowers or leaves used for decoration.
<i>Grain</i>	A small hard seed; often used to describe wheat.
<i>Harry</i>	Plunder, destroy, ravage, harass.
<i>Heartland</i>	The land at the centre of a large area of land.
<i>Heretic</i>	A person who has a different belief from most people.
<i>Husk</i>	The dry thin covering of certain seeds and fruits.
<i>Inaccessible</i>	Unable to be reached.
<i>Independence</i>	The state of being free from the control of another country, tribe or person.
<i>Inundation</i>	Flood.
<i>Inscribe</i>	To write deeply on an object. To engrave.
<i>Isthmus</i>	A narrow piece of land which joins two larger pieces together.
<i>Legend</i>	A marvellous or romantic story from early times.
<i>Libyan</i>	From Libya (in North Africa).
<i>Linear</i>	Consisting of, or having the form of, lines.
<i>Literature</i>	The collection of what has been written in a particular language.
<i>Lot</i>	A way of letting fate decide, like tossing a coin.
<i>Magistrate</i>	A person who is responsible for administering the law.
<i>Manoeuvre</i>	To move ships or soldiers in a clever way.
<i>Mercenaries</i>	Soldiers who fight for anyone who will pay them. They fight for their employers and not for a country or cause.
<i>Merchant</i>	A person who earns his living by buying and selling goods.
<i>Mess</i>	The name given to the room in which troops eat.
<i>Migrate</i>	To travel from one country in order to settle in another.
<i>Mineralogy</i>	The study of minerals.
<i>Mobile</i>	Easy to move.

<i>Monument</i>	An object to remind people of a person or event.
<i>Mortal</i>	Liable to die.
<i>Mural</i>	A painting on a wall.
<i>Natural frontiers</i>	Frontiers (boundaries of countries) which are clearly marked by Nature—for example by rivers, seas or mountains.
<i>Neglect</i>	Not to care for. To leave unattended.
<i>Noble</i>	1. A person of high rank. 2. Showing greatness of character.
<i>Nomad</i>	A wanderer.
<i>Nymph</i>	One of the beautiful goddesses who lived in every part of the earth.
<i>Orator</i>	A great public speaker.
<i>Patron</i>	A person who supports another, usually by providing money.
<i>Peasant</i>	A countryman who works on the land.
<i>Penance</i>	A punishment for sin.
<i>Persecute</i>	To pursue and seek out people to annoy or punish them.
<i>Philosophy</i>	The love of wisdom. The study of all knowledge.
<i>Pillage</i>	To plunder or spoil.
<i>Pledge</i>	A promise.
<i>Plunder</i>	Spoil taken in war.
<i>Population</i>	The number of people in a town or country.
<i>Portraiture</i>	The art of painting portraits (pictures of people).
<i>Privileges</i>	Rights given to a person.
<i>Prosperity</i>	Being prosperous (well-off or fortunate).
<i>Reinforcement</i>	Something which strengthens, e.g. fresh troops in a battle.
<i>Ritual</i>	A series of religious or magical actions, often handed down from one generation to another.
<i>Sack</i>	To devastate a town, and to remove all possible plunder and booty.
<i>Satyr</i>	A god who lives in woods, part man and part goat.
<i>Sculpture</i>	A carving in wood or stone.
<i>Shekel</i>	A Jewish weight or coin.
<i>Shrine</i>	A place, sometimes a tomb or a chapel, sacred to a holy person.
<i>Siege</i>	See <i>besiege</i> .
<i>Source</i>	That from which anything starts or originates.



<i>Specialists</i>	People who spend their time using and developing one particular craft or skill.
<i>Statesman</i>	A man involved in affairs connected with government.
<i>Steppe</i>	The very large plains of Asia.
<i>Stepson</i>	A son whose parent has re-married since he was born becomes the stepson of the new parent.
<i>Stylus</i>	A form of 'pen' used for writing on wet clay tablets.
<i>Successor</i>	A person who follows (or succeeds) another in a particular job or position.
<i>Surgeon</i>	A person skilled in surgery, which is the treatment of injuries or disorders of the body by operating.
<i>Survive</i>	To remain alive, or avoid destruction.
<i>Talent</i>	1. A special ability. 2. A sum of money.
<i>Terms</i>	The conditions of an agreement.
<i>Tragedy</i>	A play which tells the story of mournful or dreadful events.
<i>Tribute</i>	A fixed amount paid at certain intervals by one nation to another as the price of peace and protection.
<i>United</i>	Joined together.
<i>Vegetarian</i>	A person who only eats vegetables, that is, does not eat meat.
<i>Word of mouth</i>	Something that is spoken.
<i>Zoology</i>	The study of animals.

Development of farming in Europe (see also pp. 16 and 27)



## GLOSSARY Part II

<i>Absolute</i>	Ruling without the restriction of a constitutional council.
<i>Almshouse</i>	A house where the poor are looked after, or given help.
<i>Ambassador</i>	Minister sent by one state on a mission to another state.
<i>Arian Christian</i>	Follower of Arius of Alexandria who said that Christ was not part of the Trinity.
<i>Anti-Pope</i>	A Pope elected to oppose another properly elected Pope.
<i>At-will</i>	Without consulting a council or advisers.
<i>Babylonish Captivity</i>	The exile of the Popes in Avignon. The reference is to the Babylonish captivity of the Israelites in the Bible.
<i>Bailiffs</i>	Agents of kings or noblemen in charge of a district.
<i>Balkans</i>	The peninsula surrounded by the Adriatic, Aegean and Black Seas in south-eastern Europe.
<i>Barons</i>	Titles given by king for military or other services.
<i>Blood-feud</i>	Quarrel between families where one member has been killed by a member of the other family.
<i>Boon work</i>	Extra work performed at sowing and harvest times.
<i>Bullion</i>	Gold and silver ingots.
<i>Burgesses</i>	Inhabitants of a borough with full municipal rights.
<i>Burghs</i>	Fortified towns.
<i>Catholic Christians</i>	Followers of the Western or Latin Church.
<i>Chapter of Canons</i>	Full number of dignatories in a cathedral or monastery.
<i>Canonize</i>	Admit formally to Canon, or catalogue, of Saints.
<i>Civil</i>	The part of the government dealing with non-military or naval matters.



<i>Civil service</i>	Government officials engaged in non-military affairs.
<i>Clerks</i>	Men in holy orders.
<i>Coat of arms</i>	The heraldic shield used by people of noble birth.
<i>Comitatus</i>	The companions and bodyguard of a German chieftain.
<i>Croft</i>	A small piece of enclosed land.
<i>Crown Wearings</i>	Special State occasions when the king wore his coronation crown.
<i>Curfew</i>	A fixed time after which town inhabitants may not go outside their houses.
<i>Depose</i>	Remove from office, or from the throne.
<i>Dialect</i>	Form of speech or language used in a region of a country.
<i>Dictator</i>	A ruler who does not use a constitutional council.
<i>Diet</i>	The German Parliament.
<i>Diocese</i>	Church district administered by a Bishop.
<i>Diplomacy</i>	The art of managing international affairs and relations.
<i>Disciples</i>	The followers of a religious leader.
<i>Edda</i>	A collection of ancient Icelandic poems.
<i>Envoy</i>	A State representative ranking below an Ambassador.
<i>Excommunication</i>	Banning a person from all the services of the Church.
<i>Export</i>	Send out goods to another country.
<i>Fallow</i>	Land left under grass to recover fertility.
<i>Fetishes</i>	Objects worshipped for their magical powers.
<i>Forced labour</i>	Enforced work without pay.
<i>Forced marches</i>	Marches where the troops travel quicker and with less stops than usual.
<i>Fyrd</i>	The Anglo-Saxon peasant army called up in war-time.
<i>Glyphs</i>	Carvings and symbols on stone or precious metal. Symbols used in non-alphabetic languages.

<i>Guild</i>	Sometimes spelt 'gild'. A group of people in the same trade or industry coming together to protect themselves from competitors.
<i>Hegira</i>	Mohammed's flight from Mecca in A.D. 622, the beginning of Moslem time reckoning.
<i>Heptarchy</i>	The seven kingdoms of Anglo-Saxon England.
<i>Heriot</i>	Death duty in form of a gift of the best cattle given to the lord of the manor when a tenant died.
<i>Holy war</i>	The Moslem counterpart of a Christian crusade.
<i>Host</i>	A large army.
<i>Hovel</i>	A very poor cottage, or house.
<i>Illuminated</i>	Decorated capital letters and margins of medieval manuscripts.
<i>Import</i>	Goods brought into a country from abroad.
<i>Interdict</i>	A Church ban on a country stopping all Church services.
<i>Interest</i>	Money paid for the use of a loaned sum of cash.
<i>Invest</i>	To give a person a badge of office.
<i>Irrigate</i>	To water dry land by specially dug ditches and canals.
<i>Islam</i>	The Moslem religion.
<i>Latin Kingdom</i>	Christian kingdoms in the Near East so called to distinguish them from the Orthodox, or Greek lands.
<i>Litter</i>	Enclosed vehicle containing a seat carried on poles by animals or servants.
<i>Lollards</i>	The followers of John Wycliff in the fourteenth century who opposed the authority of the Pope.
<i>Marches/Marks</i>	Frontier lands.
<i>Margraves</i>	German nobles holding frontier estates.
<i>Matters of State</i>	Business concerning the government of a country.
<i>Mayor of Palace</i>	A royal minister who in fact governs a country.
<i>Mercenaries</i>	Soldiers who fight in any cause for money.
<i>Militia</i>	Local troops raised from volunteers.
<i>Monarch</i>	The sovereign ruler of a country.



<i>Murals</i>	Wall paintings.
<i>Muster</i>	The gathering of an army.
<i>Nomadic (Nomads)</i>	People who do not lead a settled life in villages, or towns.
<i>Order</i>	A brotherhood of monks, friars or knights.
<i>Orthodox Christians</i>	Followers of the Eastern or Greek Church recognizing the Patriarch of Constantinople, not the Pope.
<i>Overlord</i>	Noble having authority over others.
<i>Pannage</i>	The right to pasture pigs.
<i>Papacy</i>	The official position of the Pope, from Papa = father.
<i>Parish</i>	Church area administered by priest, vicar or rector.
<i>Passes</i>	Narrow paths across mountains.
<i>Patriarch</i>	The head of the Orthodox Church.
<i>Penance</i>	Act of repentance after committing a sin.
<i>Petty kings</i>	Kings ruling small and unimportant kingdoms.
<i>Pilgrims</i>	Persons who journey to holy shrines as an act of devotion.
<i>Pillage</i>	Plundering and looting carried out by an army.
<i>Plate armour</i>	Heavy armour of solid steel pieces joined by leather straps and hinges.
<i>Poll tax</i>	Tax levied upon every person: poll = head.
<i>Pope</i>	The head of the Catholic Church.
<i>Provinces</i>	The part of a country outside the capital.
<i>Raw materials</i>	Articles which have not been manufactured.
<i>Reeves</i>	Royal officials in charge of a district – Sheriff, or Shire Reeve.
<i>Regent</i>	Person who rules a country during the minority, absence or illness of the king.
<i>Renounce</i>	To give up claims or possession of land or titles.
<i>Retinues</i>	The soldiers and servants of a noble's household.
<i>Revenue</i>	State's annual income to meet public expenses.
<i>Revere</i>	To hold in deep respect.

<i>Ring and staff</i>	The badges of office given to a Bishop after election.
<i>Romance countries</i>	Countries of southern Europe where the languages developed directly from Latin, particularly Italy, Spain and southern France.
<i>Romances</i>	Medieval stories in verse about some hero.
<i>Sacking</i>	The plundering of a captured city.
<i>Sagas</i>	Medieval Norse and Icelandic prose stories.
<i>See</i>	Church district administered by an Archbishop.
<i>Serfs</i>	Peasants forced to work on their master's land.
<i>Schism</i>	Divisions within the Church caused by opposed opinions between parties.
<i>Shinto</i>	Japanese religion believing in household gods.
<i>Sister houses</i>	Groups of monasteries belonging to the same Order.
<i>Stipend</i>	The salary of a priest.
<i>Storm</i>	Take a town or defensive position by direct attack.
<i>Suburbs</i>	Districts built on the outskirts of towns.
<i>Surplus</i>	Food or goods over and above those needed by a country.
<i>Suspension bridge</i>	Bridge hung on chain cables passing over towers and anchored, but not supported by arches.
<i>Synod</i>	A Church meeting or assembly.
<i>Toft</i>	Land around a homestead.
<i>Tonsure</i>	The shaven head of a priest or monk.
<i>Tribute</i>	Money paid by a defeated country to its conqueror.
<i>Tunnage and poundage</i>	Royal tax collected on imports and exports.
<i>Valhalla</i>	The Norse heaven where heroes killed in battle feasted everlastingly.
<i>Vassal</i>	Noble owing service to the king or another noble.
<i>Vellum</i>	Fine parchment made from calf skin.
<i>Warlord</i>	Leader appointed to lead his nation in battle.
<i>Wattle and daub</i>	Interlaced rods and sticks plastered with mud or clay.
<i>Witan</i>	The members of a Witenagemot.
<i>Witenagemot</i>	The Anglo-Saxon royal council or Parliament.



## NOTES ON PRONUNCIATION

Section 2	Chou as Jew (Ch=J) Ch'ou as Chew (Ch'=Ch)	
Section 3	Ashunasirpal Shalmaneser Tiglathpileser Sennacherib Ashurbanipal Nabopolassar Hezekiah Nebuchadnezzar Belsharusur Xerxes	Ash'er'nas'ear'pal Shall'man'ess'er Tig'lath'pill'ess'er Sen'nak'er'rib Ash'er'ban'i'pal Na'bo'pol'ass'are Hes'se'kire Neb'bew'chad'ness'sare Bal'shar'us'er Xerk'xees
Section 4	Cnossus Mycenaean Ugarit Pythagoras Themistocles Hellespont Thermopylae Mycalē Pericles Thucydides Erechtheum Euripides Aristotle Demosthenes Bucephalus Seleucus Cerebus Argonaut	K'nos'us My'seen'e'an U'gar'it Pie'thag'or'us 'Them'ist'ok'lees Hell'is'pont Therm'op'ill'lie My'sar'le Perry'clees Thew'sid'id'es Erik'they'um You'rip'i'dees A'ris'tot'le De'moss'then'ees Bew'sef'a'lus Sell'you'see'us Sery'bus Are'go'nought
Section 5	Cu Chulainn Mabiniogion Cynoscephalae Gracchus	Cush'lane Mab'in'og'e'on Kine'os'ef'a'lie Gra'kus

	Jugurtha	You'girth'a
	Mithridates	Mith'rid'dart'ees
	Cneius Pompeius	Nie'us Pomp'pay'us
	Cicero	Sis'er'o
	Vercingetorix	Ver'sin'get'or'ix
	Veii	Vey'ee
	Diocletian	Die'o'cle'shun
	Aeneas	E'nee'as
	Metamorphoses	Met'a'more'foe'seas
	Suetonius	Sway'tone'e'us
	Cassivellaunus	Kass-see-well-orn-us
	Caractacus	Karak'tar'kus or caract-icus
	Suetonius Paulinus	Sue-ton-e-us Paul-eyenus
	Boudicca	Boo'dick'a
	Iceni	Eye'seen'ee
	Aurelius	Or'ray'lea'us
	foederati	foy'der'are'tea
	Chandragupta	Chan'dra'gup'ta
	Asoka	Ass'oh'ka
	Mahabharata	Ma'hab'har'rata
	T'sas Lun	Say-lun
	Kojiki	Ko-gee'key
	Nihon Shoki	Ne'hon Show'key
Section 6	Hsien Pi	'Sien 'pea
	Hsiung Nu	'See-ung new
	Merovingians	Mare'o'vin'gee'ans
Section 7	Byzantine	Biz'anteen
	Charlemagne	Sharle'mayn
	Mohammed	Moham'ed
	Hegira	He'djeera
Section 8	Renaissance	Rene'sans
	Buddhism	Bud'isim
	Ghengis Khan	Ghen'ghis Kan'
	Kublai Khan	Kou'ble Kan'



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